

THE PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

IN THE
UNITED STATES

BY
G. W. A. LUCKEY

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN THE
FACULTY OF PHILOSOPHY
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

NEW YORK
JANUARY, 1903



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PREFACE.

IN the earliest civilization of a people there are no schools, and no conscious teaching. Such intelligence as exists is of the most rudimentary character, narrowly experiential, domestic, phenomenal, superstitious. It is likewise as limited in quantity as it is primitive in quality. There is less difference between the knowledge of the adult and that of the child, or between the wise and the ignorant, than in higher civilization. Nature and experience are the only teachers, followed by parental guidance and the processes of unconscious imitation.

This stage is followed by another, in which the family represents the school and the parents represent the teachers. But as society grows more complex, and knowledge and experience accumulate, special teachers become an essential factor in the community life. In the differentiation of activities the best informed usually become the teachers. These differ in qualification and training according to the conditions of the environment, the stage of civilization and the racial and religious ideals of the people.

The subjects of study in primitive systems are usually quite simple, depending largely upon simple processes of memory and consisting of folk-lore, tales and songs of heroes and of war, traditions, racial history, religious beliefs and ceremonies, social and political duties. The teaching is correspondingly simple. But with the beginning of written language, history and literature assume a more important

rôle in the education of the people, and the teaching increases in difficulty. Yet even in this stage education has to do mostly with a knowledge of the past, the course of study remains quite stable and the teaching is empiric and comparatively simple. Thus in the thought of the mediæval and early modern universities a knowledge of the subject-matter was the chief, if not the only requisite, to successful teaching. A university degree was in itself a license to teach.

Within the last century the educational advancement, at least in the more progressive nations, has been so rapid, the scientific spirit so pronounced, and the differentiation and increased complexity of subject-matter so great, that it has become necessary to simplify the processes of education by more expert teaching.

The science of education, depending as it does for much of its material upon the scientific advancement in other fields of thought, has been slow in its development. But the growth of this subject in late years has been rapid and encouraging. Along with the advancement of the science of education has come a deeper interest in the science and art of teaching and in the professional training of teachers.

Each year adds new material to the experiences of the social whole and increases correspondingly the complexity of the preparation necessary to carry on the various activities of life. This tends not only to extend the period of infancy and lengthen the time of preparation, but also to add a continually increasing burden upon mind and body. To overcome this strain without at the same time limiting the individual's strength and usefulness, it is necessary that the teaching be made more efficient and more economical. Teachers must be professionally trained for their work.

In this study we have endeavored to bring together material showing the growth and present condition of the professional training of secondary teachers in the United States.

To throw additional light upon the subject, we have given in Chapter I, a brief survey of the beginning and growth of the movement for the special professional training of teachers in Germany, the country in which the subject originated and in which it first took permanent root. As shown in this chapter, the professional preparation of elementary and of secondary teachers in Germany resulted from two disparate movements or influences, the latter being the outgrowth of work first offered in the philological seminaries; a fact which probably accounts for some of the opposition still manifested by many classicists against departments of education.

In Chapter II we call attention to a few important points in the historical development of normal schools in the United States. In Chapter III we have given attention to the history of separate normal departments in colleges and universities. These were established either for the purpose of training elementary teachers or for the training of elementary and secondary teachers combined. Chapter IV is also devoted to the history of the subject. It goes more into detail with the historical development of college and university departments of education which have had as their chief aim the professional training of secondary teachers. Chapter V is devoted to a study of pedagogical instruction, what, when and how. In Chapter VI we have endeavored to answer the question of the advisability of having separate training schools or separate courses for the preparation of elementary and of secondary teachers. To the whole we have added an appendix consisting of a series of outlines on the history of education explained in a preface.

This study, at most, is scarcely more than a beginning. It covers but few points on an important field. Should it stimulate thought and arouse deeper interest in the professional training of teachers, it will have fulfilled its purpose.

I desire to acknowledge obligations to the professors of education in colleges and universities and to state normal school principals who have so kindly aided me in the prosecution of this study. I am also especially indebted to Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler and to Dr. Jas. E. Russell for valuable suggestions and direction.

G. W. A. L.

UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, *Lincoln*, 1902.

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CHAPTER I

BEGINNING AND GROWTH OF THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS

GERMANY

PART I.—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

IT is probably true that educators of all times have felt the necessity of special preparation for those who are to become the teachers of the young; and yet, it is only during the last century that any systematic effort has been made in this direction.

CHURCH AND SCHOOL During the Middle Ages nearly all education was in the hands of the Church, and there was little, if any, distinction made between the preparation considered necessary for the office of the minister and that of the teacher. The former more often filled both positions with equal confidence, calling to his aid the teacher only in case his own duties became too arduous, and then to serve as "sexton, chorister, beadle, bell-ringer, clock-maker and even grave-digger," as well as instructor. "The school-masters were scarcely more than the domestics of the curé,"¹ wandering monks and unsuccessful candidates for the clergy, or those whose probationary period had not expired. Hence, with but few exceptions the stronger students became the ministers and the weaker the teachers.

¹Compayre, *History of Pedagogy*, p. 366.

PRIOR TO THE
RENAISSANCE

Aside from the few monasteries, parochial and cathedral schools, and later, the universities and the burgher schools, but little effort was made to educate the masses prior to the Renaissance. Such education as was offered consisted for the most part of memory exercises on church doctrine and catechism, and so much of the Latin ritual as was necessary in performing the ordinary services of the church.

CHANGES IN
EDUCATION

With the growth of commercial centers, the breaking away from church authority and the final separation of Church and State, education assumed an entirely different aspect. The work of the minister and that of the teacher were gradually differentiated until there grew up two entirely different classes of educators—the ecclesiast and the teacher. The growth of the idea that education is a legitimate function of the State hastened the separation.

As the State began to assume control of educational affairs, the special preparation of teachers became an object of more immediate concern. Prior to this time any mention of the special professional training of teachers would have been regarded as the visionary dream of an educational enthusiast. Had not the colleges and the Church been preparing teachers all these years? Were not scholarship and common sense the only necessary requisites of the teacher? These and similar questions were more common a hundred years ago than now.

DIFFICULTIES TO
BE OVERCOME

There were other difficulties—lack of resources, a divided constituency, no state system of education and but few land-marks. The spread of schools became more rapid than the increase in the supply of teachers, even of the maimed, the halt and the blind, of whom it has been said: “The teacher was often regarded in the community on the same footing as

a mendicant, and between the herdsman and himself, the preference was for the herdsman. Consequently, the situation of the school-master was the most often sought after by men who were infirm, crippled, unfit for any other kind of work."¹

GERMANY LEADS
THE WAY

Such, or even worse, was the condition of affairs when near the middle of the eighteenth century the German government (the first of all nations) began to take up in earnest the special preparation of teachers. The movement began as do most reforms, without a definite plan and without a full realization and appreciation of the magnitude and importance of the undertaking. But it grew, was modified and spread throughout the schools of the empire, until "The result is the best equipped and most exclusive body of teachers in the world."²

In 1524 Luther said in a communication addressed to the public authorities of Germany that "Since the greatest evil in every place is the lack of teachers, we must not wait till they come forward of themselves; we must take the trouble to educate them and prepare them."

EFFORT OF
RATICH, 1619

But it remained for Ratich to have the honor of establishing the first pedagogical seminary, which was founded at Kœthen in 1619, under the patronage of Prince Ludwig, of Anhalt-Koethen, and of Duke John Ernest, of Weimar. Ratich claimed to have invented a new and far more efficient method of teaching the languages, and this institution was established for the purpose of training teachers in the use of the new method. He gave lectures on didactics, held discussions on educational problems, conducted model lessons on language teaching and called on members of his classes to conduct

¹ Compayre, *History of Pedagogy*, p. 519.

² Russell, *German Higher Schools*, p. 354.

lessons under guidance. Although the institution continued only a few months and left but little permanent benefit, it contained in embryo many of the principles now considered of much value in the training of teachers, especially in the line of theory and practice.

LA SALLE, 1684

The next institution to take form looking toward the training of teachers was the "Seminary for Schoolmasters," established by Abbe Jean Baptiste de la Salle at Rheims in 1684. La Salle was a religious devotee who, seeing the great ignorance of the persons who applied for positions in the parish schools, founded the order known as the "School Brethren, Frères ignorantins," and in 1679 opened his own home to several teachers of limited means. In 1684 he established the "Institute of the Brethren of the Christian Schools" and the "Seminary for Schoolmasters," as indicated above. The object of the latter was to train teachers for the rural districts. The School Brethren established many schools under the authority of the Church, and did for primary education what the Jesuits did for secondary education. The members of the order devoted themselves to elementary teaching in harmony with the doctrine of the Catholic Church. The work consisted more of academic than of professional studies, but it is worthy of note that a few years later a similar institution established by La Salle at Paris had connected with it a primary school in which the teaching was done by students in practice.

FRANCKE AND
THE TEACHERS'
SEMINARIES AT
HALLE

The *Seminarium Praeceptorum*, or Teachers' Seminary, opened by A. F. Francke in connection with his orphan asylum at Halle in 1696, and the *Seminarium Selectum Praeceptorum* established in connection with his *Pedagogium* in 1707 are usually referred to as the first institutions founded for the professional training of teachers, and judged by their success and influence they well merit the honor. It

was a private and philanthropic enterprise which grew out of the necessity for trained teachers at the orphan asylum and other institutions established by Francke at Halle through the liberal donations of the people. Francke began by selecting a number of needy students to assist him in the work of instruction, in return for which they received board and lodging free. In 1704 he selected ten or twelve students from the above number "who exhibited the right basis of piety, knowledge, skill and desire for teaching," and constituted them his "Seminarium Praeceptorum, or Teachers' Seminary." These students engaged themselves for five years, the first two of which were devoted to further study, especially in academic subjects, and weekly lectures and discussions on the theory and practice of teaching. The next three years were given to teaching in the orphan asylum, Paedagogium and other schools connected with the institution. By means of this training the students became so much better equipped in their work as teachers that on leaving the institution they spread its fame throughout all Germany. This had the effect of attracting many strong students to the school at Halle, and of stimulating others to found similar institutions elsewhere.

The work of the Seminarium Selectum was adapted especially to secondary education, while that of the Teachers' Seminary was fitted more particularly for the work of elementary schools. Members of the latter had less theory but more practice.

It is worthy of note that Christoph Cellarius, an eminent classical scholar and professor of eloquence and history in the University of Halle, conducted the scientific exercises of the Seminarium Selectum for a short time prior to his death (1707) and gave daily lectures on the humanities to members of the Teachers' Seminary.

Francke was not satisfied with the institution, and in 1714

he prepared plans for a *Seminarium Ministerii Ecclesiastici* and a *Seminarium Elegantioris Litteraturæ*. In the former were to be trained the future servants of the Church (Protestant) and in the latter those who were to pursue by profession the humanities, and who desired to prepare themselves for the offices of the classical schools (*Gelehrten Schulen*). Herein Francke had already shown himself to be the forerunner of Wolf, who many years later accomplished the complete separation of theological and philological studies. It was thought in this way to spare the student many subjects which were chiefly of value to the future preacher and, on the other hand, to make philology and kindred sciences the problem of more immediate concern. The subjects designated for this purpose were Latin, Greek, Hebrew, history, geography, pure and applied mathematics and fluency in French speech. Besides, the members busied themselves with the methodology of the humanities and directly qualified themselves for employment in the teacher's profession. The guidance of these students was in the hands of the inspectors of the *Pedagogium* and of the Latin School.¹

The work of Francke at Halle was of especial interest not only because it furnished the foundation of the later developed Real Schools of Germany but also because we find here the beginning of the systematic preparation of teachers which led the way to the establishment of elementary normal schools; and because in the work of the *Seminarium Selectum*, and the classical instruction in the *Pedagogium*, we find foreshadowed the Philological Seminaries which represented the first efforts toward the professional training of secondary teachers.

In 1732 a preacher and disciple of Francke, by the name

¹ Fries, *Baumeister's Handbuch der Erziehungs- und Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen*, Vol. II, part i, p. 49.

of Schienmeyer,² opened a teachers' seminary in connection with his orphan asylum at Stettin. This movement received the expressed approval of the king, Frederic William I., and so interested him that later, in 1736, he issued an order to Abbot Steinmetz, of Kloster-Bergen, instructing him to establish a normal school at that place.

As a result of the pietistic movement started by Francke many other attempts were made to establish teachers' training classes in connection with church and city schools.

The most important private venture of this kind was the Teachers' Seminary or Normal School established by the Rev. John Julius Hecker at Kurmark in Berlin in 1748.

Hecker had been brought under the influence of Francke while a student at the University of Halle, and when called to the pastorate of the Church of the Trinity, at Berlin, he became instructor of the German schools of the parish. These grew so under his guidance that in 1747 he added to the curriculum drawing, geometry, architecture, agriculture, and the natural sciences, and designated the enlarged institution the Real-schule. The following year he added the Teachers' Seminary or Normal School.

This school at once attracted the attention of the king, Frederic the Great, who like his father, Frederic William I., was greatly interested in bettering the educational conditions of his kingdom.

By royal ordinance in 1753 the king enjoined that all the vacancies of the country schools on certain sections of the crown lands of the kingdom should be supplied by teachers educated at the Kurmark Normal School, granting at the same time an annual stipend for the support of twelve alumni of this institution. Through an act of the king in

¹ Schmid, *Encyc.*, Vol. X, p. 51.

the following year this private school of Hecker's was made the royal primary school for the education of schoolmasters and parish clerks.

The first general school regulations for Prussia (1763) drawn up by Hecker and issued by royal authority, required, among other provisions, that teachers pass an examination prior to appointment, and that for the royal schools in the district, towns and villages, only such teachers be employed as have been, at least for some time, pupils of the royal sacristans' and school-masters' normal school at Kurmark in Berlin, and who have acquired the practical knowledge of silk industry and of the methods of school-keeping as practiced in the German schools of Trinity Church.¹

These regulations required that all children be sent to school regularly from 5 to 13 or 14 years of age and be "Christianly taught in reading, praying, chanting, writing and arithmetic, catechism and Biblical history."

Two years later, Frederic the Great issued similar regulations for his Catholic subjects in Silesia, in which he required that all teachers in cities and villages be examined before appointment. In order that the young might have the best instruction and that adults might be taught how to teach and manage youth, he selected several schools that were to serve as seminaries for future teachers. These schools were to have a well-informed director and skillful teachers. "The director should aim to have everything in his school taught thoroughly and in reference to the needs of common life."² His object should be, not to load the

¹ Barnard's *National Education in the German States*, p. 344.

² From the Law as quoted by Barnard in *National Education in the German States*, p. 869.

memory, but to train the mind and develop the understanding. The best methods were demanded for these schools, and the students preparing for teaching were required, along with their academic studies, to observe the instruction of children as given by the regular teaching and then to conduct themselves under the guidance and criticism of the teacher. Many of the provisions of this law have continued in force even to the present time.

From this time forth normal schools spread quite rapidly throughout Germany. But it was not until the present century that they began to assume definite form and to become permanently fixed as an essential part of the educational system.

SPREAD
OF NORMAL
SCHOOLS

The school law of 1819 required every departmental district to support at least one normal school; and to have in connection therewith a primary school to furnish the students opportunity for observation and practice teaching.

In order that these schools might be kept as close to the people as possible, and that the pupil teachers be preserved from dissipation and the temptations of city life, the number of students was limited to 70, and the normal schools were to be established, whenever possible, in small towns. The confessional character of the schools was then established as it still remains. In communities where the number of Catholics and Protestants were nearly equal, a normal school for each denomination was to be created. In other communities the school was to take on the confessional form representing the stronger sect, those of the minority attending a school in an adjoining district.

The above law fixed the age of admission to the normal school as from 16 to 18 years, and in the matter of scholarship required that the candidate should have passed through a course of instruction in an elementary school.

At present the age limit is 17 years, and the candidate

must have completed a common school (volkschule) course of eight years and also the three years' course preparatory to the normal school. He must furnish a physician's certificate of sound health; a certificate from the pastor showing that his character has been moral and blameless, and certificates from at least two of his former teachers showing previous industry and moral habits, and indicating that he has sufficient ability for the teacher's profession.

PRESENT
CONDITION

Furnished with these credentials the candidate is admitted to the entrance examination, which includes Biblical history, history of Christianity, catechism, reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic, geography, German history, natural history and vocal and instrumental music.

If successful his name is placed on the eligible list of applicants according to rank, from which the highest are selected to fill the first vacancies occurring in the normal school of the district.

INFLUENCE OF
THE NORMAL

Since graduation from the normal schools has become almost the only means of obtaining a position as teacher in the elementary schools of Germany, the influence of these institutions in molding the ideas of the people can hardly be overestimated.

The course extending over three years varies but little throughout the different states and is as follows:

COURSE OF STUDY OF THREE YEARS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS OF PRUSSIA.

Required Subjects.	1st Year. hrs. per wk.	2nd Year. hrs. per wk.	3rd Year. hrs. per wk.
Pedagogy	2	3	3
Religion	4	4	2
German	5	5	2
History	2	2	2
Arithmetic	3	3	} 2
Geometry	2	2	
Nat. Science	4	4	2
Geography	2	2	1
Drawing	2	2	1
Writing	2	1	0
Gymnastics	2	2	2
Music	5	5	3
Total	35	35	20

Besides the above required work the student may elect Latin, French or English offered in courses of 3 hrs., 3 hrs., 2 hrs. per week.

With the exception of pedagogy, the subjects presented in the Normal Schools are the same as those presented in the preparatory schools and in the main similar to the subjects that the student will be called upon to teach in the elementary schools.

All normal schools are under governmental control, tuition is free, and at least half of the living expenses of the students is borne by the State.

All candidates contract to engage in teaching in whatever places they are assigned for at least three years, and are sure of permanent employment.

I have presented here only a few of the
 GENERALIZATIONS
 TOUCHING THE salient features. The normal schools of Ger-
 ORIGIN OF many have been the result of a slow growth,
 PROFESSIONAL internal and external, which is still going on.
 TRAINING They are the product of the reform movement
 in education which tended *toward realism and away from*

classicism—an effort which had for its object the practical education of the masses, the fitting of youth for citizenship and the practical duties of life. Or, according to Rein, “If one seeks the pedagogical motives out of which these establishments grew he finds them resulting partly through pietistic and partly through philanthropic influences which dominated there, the former rather pastorally inclined through the needs of the youth, the latter arising more especially from the idea of a general school reform.”¹

Dr. Russell in speaking of this reform movement says, “Two dominant motives determined all action in this direction: (1) The perfection of the individual, and (2) the mastery over environment. These two ideas also entered into the educational ideas of the time, and directed the development of the school system. The one was essentially humanistic as pertaining to the perfection of the human subject; the other was essentially realistic as pertaining to the control of things in the objective world.” And again, “The real school, therefore, is the direct response to the individual ideal that lays special emphasis on the mastery of environment.”²

Normal schools were the result of this realistic movement which called attention to the objects of the environment and created a demand for new subjects of study as well as a more rationalistic method of teaching the old ones.

In order to advance the new education it was necessary to have teachers educated not only in the new subjects but also in the spirit of the new thought; hence the importance of teachers' seminaries.

At first the new subjects contained but little content and were not to be compared to the humanities in educative

¹ *Volksschullehrer bildung*, Rein's Encyc., 7: 1044.

² *German Higher Schools*, p. 64.

value. Two ideas became prominent, the one, to extend the number of new subjects, the other, to shorten the time given to the classics by means of better methods, and to add to this curriculum some of the real studies. Neither of these views wholly prevailed; the latter exerted much influence in modifying the classical schools, while the former, somewhat changed, became the ideal of the elementary and normal schools.

The thing that was most desired at first was not culture, but knowledge and the power of imparting that knowledge to others. This gave the normals a practical and industrial, though somewhat narrow turn, which they still retain. Agriculture, mechanic arts, manual training, silk industry, weaving, cooking, etc., were subjects quite frequently introduced into the curriculum.

Among the principal forces that have been at work in shaping the development of these institutions may be mentioned the pietists under Francke, the philanthropists under Basedow, educational reformers like Pestalozzi, Felbiger and Diesterweg, the clergy, long the guardian of all education, jealous of its power and unwilling to give up its authority, and the central government, always aggressive in extending its power and influence.¹

The normal schools have taken on a distinctly German character. They represent the interests of the common people. They promulgate class distinction by offering a course unsuited to advancement in the higher institutions. Thorough academic instruction over a limited field by methods which are intended as a guide for the pupil teacher, observation and criticism of school work and practice teaching according to model, are the principal features for which they stand.

¹ Compare Barnard's *National Education in the German States*; *Volkschullehrer bildung*, Rein's Encyc., 7: 1040, and *Volksschullehrer seminar*, Schmid's Encyc., 10: 51.

PART II.—SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Turning our attention to the professional training of teachers for secondary education, we find the first efforts in this direction being made through the theological and philological seminaries of the universities, especially in the latter.

Prior to the 18th century no special arrangements had been made at the universities or elsewhere for the professional training of secondary teachers.

Many theologians having noticed how frequently their students were called as tutors and school officers felt the need of giving them a more suitable training, and Buddeus, professor of theology at Jena, even went so far as to advocate for this purpose the establishment of a pedagogical seminary, but nothing further resulted from this source.

Leaving out of account the efforts of Cellarius at the University of Halle and that of Francke in his *Paedagogium*, both of which related to the humanities and were in a certain sense philological seminaries, the oldest example of a university seminary having for its object the professional training of teachers was the philological seminary established by J. M. Gesner in the University of Göttingen 1737.

While a student of theology under Buddeus at Jena, Gesner had shown particular interest in pedagogical problems, and at the suggestion of the former had written, in 1715, his "*Institutiones rei scholasticæ*," a sort of educational compendium containing many important rules for teachers, and intended to be used as a basis of lectures in a pedagogical seminary.

For the next 20 years Gesner had an unusually rich educational experience, first as librarian at Weimar, then as rector of the Ansbach gymnasium, and still later as rector of the celebrated Thomas school at Leipzig, where he exerted

EARLY
SEMINARIES

THE WORK OF
GESNER AT
GÖTTINGEN, 1737

great influence in restoring the ancient classics to a place of honor. Called in 1734 to the new University of Göttingen as professor of eloquence and poetry, he was appointed inspector of the Hanover schools, and soon afterwards (1737) opened his philological seminary for the training of young theologians for the office of teaching.

Fries¹ speaks of this work as being divided into three divisions: 1st, a special scientific one in philology, mathematics, natural sciences, history and geography; 2d, a pedagogical one with the schools over which he was inspector as a basis; and 3d, a practical one through practice-teaching in the city schools of Göttingen. The practice-teaching, however, does not seem to have been an essential part. The greatest stress was placed upon philology and a more rational study of the languages. Gesner, as a disciple of Ratic, Comenius and Locke, constantly endeavored to bring about reform in the teaching of the languages. He occupied a position about half way between the realists on the one hand, and the classicists on the other. He believed that the study of language should never be separated from the study of things, and for this reason would increase the curriculum of the classic schools by adding several scientific studies as shown above.

In his "Institutiones" he says: "It is a hundred times easier to learn a language by use and practice without grammar than from the grammar without use and practice." But again he says, "I reject grammar only for youth as hurting them more than helping them, but for grown persons it is in the highest degree necessary."² His philological writings were vigorous and helpful.

A more representative type of these early institutions

¹ *Die Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 23.

² From Karl von Raumer, *Amer. Jour. Educ.*, 5: 745.

was the philological seminary opened by Fr. A. Wolf at the University of Halle in 1787, a year made memorable in the history of German education by the establishment of the Oberschulkollegium.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SEMINARY
AT HALLE, 1787

Already in 1765 J. S. Semler, "Father of German Rationalism," had established in connection with his theological seminary at Halle a course of lectures intended to fit students for the office of teaching. These lectures were given at first by the inspector of the Seminary (Schirach, later Schütz)¹ and were philological in character, covering the use of the Latin tongue and the explanation of classic authors.

EFFORTS OF
VON ZEDLITZ

Attracted by this beginning, the State Minister, von Zedlitz, an ardent disciple of Basedow, desired to have established in the theological seminary a special pedagogical division according to the Dessau plan, which would serve also for the training of good common school teachers (Volksschullehrer). He induced Schütz to study the arrangements at the Dessau Philanthropin, and in 1777 introduced into the theological seminary the new pedagogical division.

Two years later when Schütz, who had given the pedagogical lectures, was called to the professorship of eloquence and poetry at Jena, von Zedlitz made use of the opportunity to obtain in his stead E. C. Trapp, a member of the famous Dessau Philanthropin. The work of Trapp, however, was disappointing. His pedagogical lectures failed for want of students. He exalted the study of things and discouraged the study of languages. His position can be seen from the following statement: "The learning of foreign languages is one of the greatest evils which afflict the schools, especially in Germany, and which hinder the progress of men to per-

¹ Fries, *Die Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 23.

fection and happiness.”¹ Such views were out of harmony with the place and time, and made it necessary for Trapp to resign, which he did in 1782.

A small practice school had been established in connection with the seminary, but like the pedagogical lectures it had failed for want of members.

At this time Fr. A. Wolf, a youth of twenty-two, rector of the Osterode gymnasium, was attracting much attention through his philological writings. The one entitled “Plato’s Symposium” had just appeared and received unusual appreciation. Minister von Zedlitz, still desirous of carrying forward the pedagogical work, felt that in Wolf he would have an especially strong man for the position. Wolf was consequently chosen not only a professor of philology but also of pedagogy, and it was further stipulated that he should give annually a free course of pedagogical lectures, should himself instruct in and have supervision over the teachers’ seminary, and offer model lessons in teaching. Disgusted with the superficiality of the philanthropinists and feeling himself unsuited to the work, he allowed the educational institution to go down, gave up the pedagogical professorship and became professor of eloquence instead.

NATURE AND
AIM OF THE
SEMINARY

Wolf now set himself to work to overcome the increasing opposition to the humanities by offering a more thorough and extended study of the classics. He believed also that the instruction in the higher schools could never reach its greatest efficiency while the recruiting of teachers depended almost wholly on the theologians. There should be a body of teachers trained especially for these schools. It was for these reasons that he established in 1787 his philological seminary, the first institution whose purpose was to educate teachers for the higher schools without regard to

¹*Amer. Jour. Educ.*, 6: 200. Trans. from Karl von Raumer.

theology. Having received the sanction of the Higher School Board (Ober-Schulkollegium) the seminary was opened in the fall of 1787 with twelve regular members selected on examination from among those who had spent at least one year in the university. The members thus selected continued in the seminary for the next two years of their university course.

The work of the seminary consisted in the interpretation of ancient authors, discussions by the members in Latin of written exercises and theses, assigned either beforehand, or at the moment, by the director. The more advanced members had some practice in the Latin school of the Orphan House at Halle.

The aim of the seminary was two-fold, (1) to extend and deepen the knowledge of the classics, and (2) to produce effective classical masters for the gymnasiums and higher Latin schools.

Though not so intended by the School Board and probably not by Wolf, the pedagogical side received but little attention. The growing interest in philology caused this subject to be given all the time.

Fries in speaking of this feature of the school says, "As a fact the didactic guidance never became really efficient, for in the first years they were content to send from time to time for a few of the pupils from the orphan asylum for the exercise in the Seminary and only in the winter of 1799 were the lessons by the students arranged in a few classes of the Latin school. These, however, had little purpose, as the members were cast chiefly upon themselves."¹

"The seminary was and remained a philological one, and as such became a model and influential, for its leader, a subject of entire satisfaction and just pride, since the youth here

¹ *Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 26.

gained the enthusiasm for archaeology, which later in their official positions caused them to carry out and uphold the humanistic principle of instruction in higher education, which has remained the standard until the present."¹

Wolf remained with the seminary for twenty years, or until the closing of the university by Napoleon after the battle of Jena, when he was called as a member of the department of education to Berlin.

The further development of this institution shows how at first a purely philological and later a pedagogical seminary grew out of the theological faculty.

It was not until the regulations of 1817 that the training of "skillful teachers for the gymnasiums" received special attention, and then more especially through exercises intended to give a general style in Latin.² It is fitting to remark, however, that in later life Wolf laid greater stress upon pedagogical training and felt that the absence of it had been one of the weaknesses at Halle.

OTHER
PHILOLOGICAL
SEMINARIES

Following this beginning, many other similar philological seminaries sprang up in the various universities. Among the earlier ones may be mentioned the philological seminary at Kiel, 1777; the philological-pedagogical seminary at Helmstedt, 1779; the philological and pedagogical joint seminaries at Heidelberg, 1809; the philological seminary at Königsberg, 1810 (distinct from the pedagogical seminary of Herbart); the philological seminaries of Berlin and Breslau, 1812; the renowned philological seminary at Bonn and the philological seminary of Griefswald, 1822.

The first, and in many instances the only, object of these seminaries was a purely academic one, laying the foundation for research and extending the knowledge of the classics.

¹ *Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 26.

² Barnard, *Amer. Jour. Educ.*, 17: 485.

In voting to establish the philological seminary at Königsberg, Schleiermacher, a member of the school council, said: "The first object is only to excite a love for philology, and after this is awakened and formed, when an individual inclination is developed, free play must be given to it without any hesitation; but in every way must prevent young men from limiting themselves to a narrow sphere and from finding their vocation therein."¹

Matthew Arnold, in speaking of the training of teachers, says: "Every Prussian university has a philological seminary or group of exhibitioners much like that which I have described at Halle, not more than twelve in number, with a two years' course following one year's academic study, and alterthumwissenschaft (archæology) being the object pursued. There are generally two professors especially attached to the seminary, one for Greek and the other for Latin."²

SPREAD OF THE
MOVEMENT

This revival in learning spread, as might well have been expected, to other departments of the universities, especially to the departments of history, mathematics and the natural sciences. The deeper study of the classics made it necessary to enter into the whole life of the people, and history became especially prominent. The fruit of this period is seen in such names as Wolf, Heyne, Buttmann, Bekker, Ritschl, Dindorf, Niebuhr, Gerhard, O. Jahn, E. Curtius, Mommsen and many others of equal renown.

EFFECT ON
TEACHING

Although the primary object of these departmental seminaries, like those described above, was for scientific purposes, they greatly influenced the teaching profession by overcoming formalism and creating a love for scholarship and investigation.

Had it not been for the activity of the central school

¹ Barnard's *National Education in the German States*, p. 485.

² Arnold's *Higher Schools and Universities in Germany*, p. 74.

board in upholding the pedagogical interest of the school, this growth and enthusiasm in academic learning and the better teaching resulting therefrom might of itself have been felt as sufficient and prevented longer the professional training of secondary teachers.

THE GYMNASIAL
SEMINARY AT
BERLIN

We have already had occasion to refer to the efforts of state minister von Zedlitz in trying to establish a pedagogical seminary at Halle for the training of secondary teachers according to the model of the Dessau philanthropin. These efforts at Halle were unsuccessful through the unexpected opposition of Wolf; however, in the same year with this failure at Halle (1787), von Zedlitz instructed Fr. Gedike, director of the Friedrich Werdersche Gymnasium, and member of the Oberschulkollegium to prepare a suitable plan for a pedagogical seminary to be connected with the Gymnasium, which with but slight modifications met the approval of the school authorities. The seminary was connected with the Friedrich Werdersche Gymnasium of which Gedike was director, and opened with five regular members in the spring of 1788. It was the first institution of its kind founded by the state and through State appropriation, and became at once the model of all similar institutions.

ITS PURPOSE

The aim of the school, as indicated in the plan, was "to train skillful and experienced teachers for the Gymnasiums and Higher Latin Schools." The work was to be both theoretical and practical, the former through a study of the best schools and educational literature, supplemented by pedagogical treatises prepared by the students; the latter through visitation and observation of the regular school work, by assisting in the class work of the regular teachers, by oversight and care of indifferent or backward pupils, and by actual teaching according to instructions and under the supervision of the

director and the three other teachers of the Gymnasium selected for this purpose.

CONDITION OF
ENTRANCE

Admission to the seminary was conditioned on having completed their university studies and having passed an examination including a test-lesson. Gedike had wished to include also strong graduates of the Gymnasium who had not pursued university studies, but in this he was overruled.

PRACTICE-
TEACHING

The members received a stipend of 150 thalers each, and were at first obliged to instruct 10 hours per week in the different classes of the gymnasium, the subjects changing half-yearly. They were further required to assist the ordinary teachers in correcting the written work of the pupils, and were obliged to meet in monthly conferences, open to all teachers of the gymnasium, to receive criticism and engage in pedagogical discussions.

Owing to the amount of teaching and class assistance required of the seminarists the theoretical side was much neglected; nevertheless, the school prospered and many of the candidates were called directly from the seminary to important school positions.

TRANSFER AND
OTHER CHANGES
OF THE SCHOOL

In 1793 Gedike became director of the Berlin Gymnasium of the grauen Kloster, and the seminary passed over with him to the new position. It was during this year that he organized a philological society composed of seminarists who met monthly to work out and discuss Latin essays on philological subjects. This step was fraught with great consequences for the after-development of the school, and not infrequently caused its pedagogical character to be lost sight of. Regarding this feature Rein has expressed himself as follows: "The pedagogical interest of the 18th century began more and more to retreat before the philological one

of the 19th century, and under the guidance of Boeckh (1819-1867) the seminary acquired a purely philological character."¹ This was equally true during the directorship of Bonitz, 1867-1875.² During part of the time of Boeckh's administration he was director both of the gymnasial seminary and of the philological seminary of the university, showing the close relation existing between the schoolmaster and philology.

The further development of this seminary contains much of interest. First, on account of its double character, philological and pedagogical, now one, now the other subject was accorded the greater attention. Second, there was the readiness with which the seminary was transferred from one gymnasium to another in order to meet the convenience of the director.³ Third, the amount of time devoted to teaching and practical school affairs as compared with their omission in most of the seminaries connected with the universities.

At present this seminary is connected with the Köllnische Gymnasium in Berlin, and still retains all the essential features of the original plan of 1787, together with the classical character added to it by its founder in 1793.

Other pedagogical seminaries, modeled after the above plan, have been established at Stettin 1806, Breslau 1813, Königsberg 1861, Magdeburg, Danzig and Posen 1884, Kassel 1885, Münster 1888 and Koblenz 1889.

PEDAGOGICAL
SEMINARIES

Aside from the above institutions there have been formed many pedagogical seminaries in connection with the different universities, of

¹ Rein, *Gymnasial Seminar, Encyc.*, 3: 128.

² Compare Fries, *Die Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 55.

³ At one time the length of membership was extended to four years, and the eight seminarists were to give six lessons per week in alternate years in all the four gymnasiums of Berlin.

which the one founded by J. F. Herbart in Königsberg, 1810, may be taken as a type. These differ from the philological seminaries above described in that they are professional rather than academic, dealing with the subjects of philosophy, psychology, pedagogy and ethics instead of the classics and philology.

They differ from the gymnasial seminaries in that their students have not yet completed their university course, and are engaged in academic study along with their professional studies. They also give more attention to theory and less to practice.

Other seminaries of this kind, not including the ones already mentioned at Helmstedt 1779, and at Heidelberg 1809, were those established at Halle 1829 (a reorganization), at Kiel 1827, Jena 1832, Göttingen 1838, Leipzig 1861, and Strasburg 1876-92. "There are seven university seminaries in Germany, distributed as follows: I. Giving theoretical instruction only — Göttingen. II. Combining theory with practice. (a) In connection with regular organized gymnasiums — Heidelberg, Leipzig, Münster, Tübingen, Freiberg. (b) Having a model school of its own—Jena. . . . The seminaries at Halle, Strasburg, Königsberg and Kiel, which were renowned, are all discontinued."¹

THE AIM AND
PLAN

These seminaries do not differ much in the essentials, but they differ considerably in the details, due for the most part to the local conditions through which they have developed. They aim to give the student a thorough and systematic knowledge of the more important pedagogical problems, especially in so far as they relate to German education. In most of them the classics receive a large share of attention, though probably not more than is due in a country where the languages comprise so prominent a part of the curriculum.

¹ Bolton, *The Secondary School System of Germany*, p. 91-92.

The two best known examples, Leipzig and Jena, are already quite familiar to American readers. Fries describes the plan of the seminary at Heidelberg as follows: "Now since 1876 the gymnasial director Uhlig, who is at the same time Honorary Professor of Pedagogy and of Philology at the University, conducts the seminary, into which the students may enter after two years' study. They hear his pedagogical lectures and are introduced under his guidance into practice at the gymnasium. Here they begin with the middle classes, then descend to the lower, finally concluding with Prima. It appears always to be only a question of single lessons for which the students prepare themselves carefully under the guidance of the director and by visiting the instruction in question. The director and the teacher of the subject are present at the lesson, but only the former criticises. So, for instance, the practice-teachings of the classical philologists follow each other after this order: Cæsar or Ovid in Obertertia, Xenophon in Untersekunda, Greek grammar in Untertertia, history in Quarta, German in Quarta or Quinta, Latin in Quinta or Sexta, Herodotus, Homer, Livius or Virgil, and history in Secunda, Sophocles, Plato, Demosthenes or Thucydides, Horace, Tacitus or Cicero in Prima. Accompanying these are common pedagogical discussions in weekly sessions which, according to a communication of Uhlig, have been further extended in recent times. The themes for the reports are determined at the beginning of the semester and are taken from the most diverse fields. For instance, General Didactics, Classical School Readers, the Method of Grammatical Instruction; also the demands of Hygiene, Manual Training and Child Play are presented for consideration."¹

Courses in pedagogy are offered in most of the German universities, usually under the department of philosophy,

¹ Fries, *Die Vorbildung der Lehrer für das Lehramt*, p. 30.

but these seem to be arranged rather with the thought of culture and for the purpose of meeting the professional requirements of the state examination than seriously to fit students for the office of teaching. These pedagogical lectures, like the pedagogical seminars above described, do not seem to be considered as an essential function of the university, but rather as additions that may come and go with the individual creating them; for example, the discontinuation of the seminary at Königsberg on the departure of Herbart.

UNIVERSITY
LECTURES ON
PEDAGOGY

DIFFERENT
FORMS OF
TEACHERS'
SEMINARIES

Out of this educational development there have come several forms of institutions for the professional training of teachers, the more important of which are: I. For elementary schools; (*a*) normal schools, (*b*) seminars in connection with elementary schools; II. For secondary schools; (*a*) gymnasial seminars, (*b*) the university seminary with practice school, (*c*) the university seminary without practice school.

Notwithstanding the many excellent institutions for the professional training of secondary teachers, none as yet have met the full approval of the German people. Both the university seminary with provisions for practice teaching and the gymnasial seminary have enthusiastic supporters, the latter in greater numbers. In the former the student is able to carry on his special university studies along with his pedagogical instruction, thereby giving the latter an added value—though it is also argued that this division of interest is apt to weaken the work in both fields. Another point made in favor of the university seminary is the fact that every science carries with it a certain didactical principle which can best be taught in connection with the science itself.

On the other hand, it is argued in favor of the gymnasial

seminary that the students having completed their university studies are better qualified and are able to give their whole time to the professional side under conditions the most natural and also the most favorable to success. However, it has been felt that even here the student should be given opportunity to pursue still further his scientific studies.¹

PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING AN
ESSENTIAL
REQUIREMENT

As in the elementary schools, so in the secondary, professional training has become the *sine qua non* of entrance to the teachers' profession, and the gymnasial seminaries are considered to be the best institutions for this purpose. They have met the favor of the provincial school boards and have multiplied out of proportion to other forms of teachers' seminaries. They aim to furnish the student with a large amount of practice teaching under expert guidance, and to bring into closer relation theoretical instruction and practical application. They are based on the idea that thoroughness in subject-matter should precede the purely professional study. In this they differ from normal schools.

THE SEMINARY
OF TO-DAY

To become a member of a gymnasial seminary one must have passed the State examination (Staats-Prüfung) which presupposes a certificate of graduation from gymnasium, or in special cases from the real gymnasium or higher real school, and at least three years' special study in the university. The number of candidates at any one time is usually limited to six. The seminary is connected with the gymnasium under the immediate supervision of the director and the general oversight of the provincial school board.

The course consists of two years—a seminary year

¹ See under *Pedagogische Seminar für höhere Schulen*, Schmid Encyc., 2d Ed., 5: 688 f.

(seminar-jahr) and a trial year (probe-jahr). The former is devoted principally to a study of the various educational problems connected with secondary education, including theory and practice, organization and management, methods of instruction, recent educational history, school hygiene and the use of apparatus and other helps in teaching. During the first year the student devotes considerable time in visiting and observing the regular school work. He visits the classes in which his own subjects lie, assists the regular teachers, and in the latter half of the year does some teaching under the guidance and criticism of the director and other teachers of the seminary. If his work has been satisfactory throughout the year, he is permitted to go on to the second or trial year. The trial year may be spent in the same gymnasium, though it is often spent at another institution. It is devoted to teaching (about ten hours per week) and to the practical application of the pedagogical principles learned during the first year. All this takes place under the immediate guidance of the director and other teachers. The candidate, however, is given full charge and responsibility for the class. He continues his theoretical studies and attends weekly conferences for the consideration and discussion of educational problems as in the former year. At the close of the seminary year the candidate presents a thesis on some pedagogical subject selected by the director, and at the end of the trial year he hands in a report of his teaching and of his own judgment in regard to the results. These, together with the reports of the director and of the departmental teachers are submitted to the provincial school board for final judgment. If the character and work of the candidate have been satisfactory throughout, he is given a certificate to teach in the grades for which he is especially qualified by scientific study. "Since the higher educational institutions in Germany have gained more

definite shapes and aims, the conviction has become current in increasing measure that for the teachers of these schools there is demanded, besides the thorough scientific culture, a special pedagogical preparation for the office of teaching, and that the otherwise very beneficial arrangement of a trial year does not answer all needs."¹ This was spoken in the early eighties, before the addition of the seminary year, but it shows the current of educational thought.

PEDAGOGICAL
MOTIVES THAT
HAVE SHAPED
PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING

If we seek the motives out of which have grown these complex though efficient institutions for the professional training of secondary teachers, we find them in at least two principal, though opposing, forces. The one was the realistic or scientific movement in education already mentioned as the principal cause in the establishment of normal schools. The other was the reaction of humanism against the inroads of realism, or perhaps better, a systematic effort to strengthen and enrich the classics by applying the scientific method of investigation.

In the former movement the teaching of Ratich, Comenius, Locke and Rousseau became crystallized by Basedow in his experimental school at Dessau, which gave great promise and furnished the school authorities with a concrete idea for the new pedagogical seminaries. The normal schools had already been established and were attracting considerable attention. This but increased the desire to have teachers trained in the new ideas and in the new methods as well for secondary as for elementary education.

The first impetus came from this realistic movement which made itself felt in elementary education and then reacted upon higher education. It was now known as the philanthropic movement, but it was the same spirit under a new dress. As the reader will remember, State Minister

¹ Schmid, *Encyc. des Erziehungs-und Unterrichtswesen*, 2 Aufl., 5 : 688.

von Zedlitz was in full sympathy with the movement, and backed by the school authorities it found its way into the universities and became the basis of the first gymnasial seminary under Gedike in Berlin.

In establishing pedagogical seminaries it was natural that they should be connected with departments already in existence. The departments that seemed best fitted to train teachers for the gymnasiums, aside from theology, were the language departments, hence the relation of pedagogy to philology. For this reason the state minister of education did not hesitate to trust his new pedagogical seminary at Halle in the hands of a trained philologist. For like reason the government authorized J. M. Gesner, professor of ancient literature at Göttingen, to establish the first philological seminary with the expressed object of training theologians for the office of teaching.¹

There was another movement, however, which if less noisy, was none the less powerful in shaping the educational legislation of the country. It was the movement which Dr. Russell has described under the title of the "New Humanism."² The scientific spirit had taken hold of the people and was making great changes in educational affairs. The German language had given expression to many classics. It even seemed possible to build up an acceptable curriculum for the higher schools without either Greek or Latin. It was at this juncture that the great scholars, like Gesner, Heyne, Wolf and others, began to apply the scientific spirit to a deeper study of classical literature. Call it a revolt against formalism, or a reaction against the spread of realism, nevertheless, it was an intelligent movement which gave to the classics new life and new power. Other departments of the

¹ Gesner, like many others, while a classicist, had strong realistic or utilitarian tendencies.

² *German Higher Schools*, p. 70.

universities were stimulated and benefited. Philological seminaries were established in the different universities and became at once centers of thought and educational activity.

At first the seminaries had a double object, (*a*) "to form effective classical masters for the higher schools," and (*b*) "to excite in all a love for philology." But they soon neglected or gave up entirely the former object and devoted all attention to the latter. "The seminars are the real nurseries of scientific research. It is true that their purpose was originally different. The earliest of their kind, the philological seminars founded in the last century in Halle or Göttingen were, or were intended to be, pedagogical seminars for future teachers in the classical schools; but in fact they were, (especially that of F. A. Wolf) before all else, institutions in which the technique of philological research was taught, and this is true in a still higher degree of the philological seminaries and societies conducted in the present century by G. Hermann, F. Thiersch, F. Ritschl and others, all of them being schools for philologists, not teachers."¹ Their purpose has been to encourage scientific research, rather than to give training in the practical application of knowledge, and yet they have created a love for scholarship that has greatly modified the form of teachers' seminaries for secondary education. It seems strange that to-day the greatest opposition to the professional training of teachers should come from the language departments where such training was first offered. It may be due in part to tradition, in part to accumulated experiences which have given to these subjects somewhat fixed forms of treatment, and in part to the fact that scholarship, in itself an essential requisite of a successful teacher, has been given undue prominence.

¹F. Paulsen, *German Universities, Character and Historical Development* p. 157.

The spirit of German nationalism which took hold of the German people after the battle of Jena had great influence in modifying the schools of the country and deserves to be mentioned among the forces. But principally out of the humanistic desire for culture and the philanthropic desire for utility, the present institutions for the professional training of secondary teachers have developed.

They differ from the normal schools in demanding a greater degree of scholarship and professional training; in divorcing the academic from the professional subjects; and in omitting the review or further drill in the academic subjects with the view of teaching them.

An account of the development of the institutions for the professional training of teachers in France and in England would be especially interesting, and the well-planned and far-reaching system of France affords many valuable lessons for the student of education. But as neither of these systems has exerted anything like the influence of Germany on the development of the professional training of teachers in the United States, their history may be omitted or reserved for a future article.

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CHAPTER II

HISTORY OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

THE professional training of teachers in America, as in Germany, began first with elementary education. It arose out of the necessity for academic training in the common school branches.

At a meeting of citizens of Plymouth County, Hanover, Mass., 1838, called together for the purpose of considering the advisability of establishing a normal school, the Rev. George Putnam said: "He once had kept school, and with tolerable acceptance, he believed, to his employers, but though just from college, he found himself deficient in the very first steps of *elementary knowledge*. He had studied all the mathematics required at Cambridge, but he did not know how to come at a young mind so as to successfully teach enumeration. He had studied the classics, but he could not teach a boy how to construct a simple English paragraph."¹ If true of the college student, how much more so of the many teachers who had never even visited an academy or a high school.

THE FIRST
YEARS OF A
NATION

For the first twenty-five or thirty years of the nation's history, the energies of the people were occupied with grave questions of state, financial policy, foreign and domestic relations, wars, boundaries, internal dissensions, and the many read-

¹ As quoted by Barnard in *Am. Jour. Educ.*, 1: 588.

justments necessary to meet the new forms of life and of government. Besides, it was not until the prosperous years following the War of 1812 that the Union began to be considered in the light of permanency and the means for its perpetuity became a matter of public concern.

With increased prosperity, freedom from external disturbances and accumulated faith in the government, the future of the nation began to receive greater attention. In response there arose the movement known as the "educational revival" covering the period from 1820 to 1840, during which the different states organized and greatly extended their school systems to meet the needs of the new conditions of society. It was during this period that the inefficiency of elementary education began to attract serious attention, and teachers' seminaries were advocated as the only solution of the difficulty.

It is probably true, as stated by Gordy,¹ that the idea of normal schools for this country was an original conception of the early writers on the subject, and yet, long before the idea had taken definite form in the establishment of institutions, the existing system of Germany had been carefully studied, and its nature, advantages and practical workings had been heralded through the country. One needs only to read the history of normal schools to appreciate the debt we owe to Prussia for the ideal as well as for the form of these early institutions. A single illustration will suffice. "The Prussian system, better than any other with which we are acquainted, aims at unfolding the *whole* nature of man, as the Creator designed, thus bringing out *all* the talent of the country, and thereby giving to each child the chance of making the most of himself. * * * * To secure these glorious results, we think we may imitate the Prussians, not

¹ *Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States.*

only in more varied and extensive studies, but also in their Governmental Organization."¹

There was a deficiency in the school system, a need keenly felt; Germany had successfully met somewhat similar conditions by the establishment of normal schools; why not try the experiment?

Attention had been attracted to the elementary schools; and it was there that the greatest deficiency existed. Normal schools were created in response to this need, and with the expressed object of "qualifying teachers for the common schools."²

At the town meeting at Hanover, Mass., 1848, already mentioned above, Rev. Putnam said: "It (the normal school) would, moreover, raise common schools to be the best schools in the community; and when they had become the best schools, as they should be, then the money now spent in private schools would be turned into the public ones, as in the Latin school at Boston, and higher wages could be given without any additional burden on our towns. * * * * The normal school, while it opens infinite advantages to the poor, will lessen their burdens and elevate them to knowledge and influence."³

Following, John Quincy Adams said: "We see monarchs expending vast sums, establishing normal schools throughout their realms and sparing no pains to convey knowledge and efficiency to all the children of their poorest subjects. *Shall we be outdone by kings?*"⁴

At the same meeting Daniel Webster said: "The ultimate aim was to elevate and improve the primary schools and to secure competent instruction to every child which should be

¹ Petition to Mass. Legislature, 1837, in behalf of Normal Schools, drafted by Rev. Chas. Brooks. *Am. Jour. Educ.*, 17: 643.

² Statute of Mass. *Mass. Common School Jour.*, 1: 35.

³ *Am. Jour. Educ.*, 1: 588.

⁴ *Ibid.*, 589.

born," and again, "This plan of a normal school in Plymouth County is designed to elevate our common schools, and thus to carry out the noble ideas of our pilgrim fathers."¹

In the opening address of the normal school at Barre, Mass., September 5, 1839, Governor Edward Everett said: "This institution which is now opened in this pleasant and prosperous village is devoted to the education of teachers of the *common schools* and is called a normal school."²

Horace Mann, in contrasting the work of the New York academies and Massachusetts normal schools, said the first business of a normal school consists "in reviewing and thoroughly and critically mastering the rudiments or elementary branches of knowledge."³

The one object which overshadowed all others in the creation of normal schools was that they should be the fitting schools for elementary teachers. And what was true in Massachusetts was equally true in the other states. The following declaration of intentions was made part of the entrance requirements at the Albany State Normal School, New York: "We the subscribers hereby declare, that it is our intention to devote ourselves to the business of teaching district schools, and that our sole object in resorting to this normal school is better to prepare ourselves for that important duty."⁴

THE NATURE OF
THE WORK

The way in which this object was to be accomplished is set forth quite clearly in the address of Edward Everett, Governor of Massachusetts, at the opening of the State Normal School at

¹ *Am. Four. Educ.*, 1: 590.

² *Ibid.*, 13: 758.

³ *Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States*. J. P. Gordy, p. 40.

⁴ *Am. Four. Educ.*, 17: 708.

Barre, 1839. He said in part: "Such a course of instruction will obviously consist of the following parts:

"1. A careful review of the branches to be taught in our common schools; it being of course the first requisite of a teacher that he should himself know well that which he is to aid others in learning. * * * * The first object of instruction in a normal school is, as far as possible, in the space of time assigned to its instructions, to go over the circle of branches required to be taught, and see that the future teacher is thoroughly and minutely versed in them.

"2. The second part of instruction in a normal school is the art of teaching. To know the matter to be taught and to know it thoroughly, are of themselves, though essential, not all that is required. There is a peculiar art of teaching. * * * *

"3. The third branch of instruction to be imparted in an institution concerns the important subject of the government of the school, and might perhaps more justly have been named the first. * * * *

"4. In the last place, it is to be observed, that in aid of all instruction and exercises within the limits of the normal school, properly so called, there is to be established a common or district school, as a school of practice, in which, under the direction of the principal in the normal school, the young teacher may have the benefit of actual exercise in the business of instruction."¹

Governor Everett calls attention to the three branches he considers of greatest importance for these schools: reading, writing and arithmetic. In his outline of the course of study we have the essential features of the normal school as it has existed from that day to this; 1. A thorough grounding in the subject-matter required to be taught; 2. The science

¹ *Orations and Speeches of Edward Everett*, 2: 350-357; *Am. Jour. Educ.*, 13, 765.

and art of teaching; 3. School management and discipline; 4. Practice teaching.

The Educational Committee of the Massachusetts Legislature in 1827 gave expression to similar views when reporting favorably a bill for normal schools. Among other things it said: "The attention of the student is to be called primarily to the course of reading upon the subject of education; he is to be instructed thoroughly in all the branches pertaining to his profession, particularly in all that portion of solid learning calculated to fit him to communicate the knowledge required in the common free schools of the country. A peculiar character of usefulness will be stamped upon the institution proposed by connecting with it an experimental school, consisting entirely of young children pursuing the ordinary routine of instruction."¹

The normal schools of this country began, therefore, with a definite object in view (*i. e.*, to prepare teachers for the common district schools), and according to a well-matured plan. For nearly a century teachers' seminaries had been in the process of development in Germany, and these furnished excellent examples which required only to be adapted to the different social conditions.

List of early normal schools, with date of establishment:

Massachusetts.	{	Lexington (now Framingham)	1839
		Barre (now Westfield)	1839
		Bridgewater	1839
		Salem	1853
New York ...	{	Albany	1844
		Oswego	1863
		Brockport	1866
Connecticut ..		New Britain	1849
Michigan		Ypsilanti	1850
Rhode Island.		Providence	1852
Iowa	{	Iowa City (Normal Dept. in State Uni- versity)	1855

¹ *Amer. Jour. Educ.*, 16: 87.

New Jersey ..	{	Trenton	1855
		Beverly	1856
Illinois		Bloomington (Normal)	1857
		Millersville	1859
Pennsylvania.	{	Edinboro	1861
		Mansfield	1862
		Kutztown	1866
Minnesota ...		Winona	1860
Wisconsin ...	{	Madison	1862
		Platteville	1866
Maine	{	Augusta	1863
		Farmington	1864
California ...		San Francisco (now San José)	1862
Kansas		Emporia	1865
Maryland ...		Baltimore	1865
		Randolph	1867
Vermont	{	Johnson	1867
		Castleton	1867
Nebraska		Peru	1867
Indiana		Terre Haute	1867
		Huntington (Marshall College)	1867
W. Virginia ..	{	Fairmont	1867
		West Liberty	1867

ABSENCE OF
HIGH SCHOOLS

When normal schools were first created there was little or no public provision made for secondary education. "Until 1837, when the Philadelphia High School was established, there was no institution of the kind in the United States outside of Massachusetts,"¹ and it might have been added, outside of Boston. Baltimore organized its High School in 1839, New York its Free Academy in 1849, Cincinnati a High School in 1850, and Chicago in 1856. There were a few of the old grammar schools and a number of incorporated academies, most of which received public funds, but they had been established as feeders for the early colleges, and were devoted principally to the teaching of Latin, Greek and mathematics, subjects of but little interest to the people at large.

¹ Kiddle & Schem, *Cyclo. of Education*, p. 422.

THE PEOPLE'S
SCHOOL

The common or district school was in every sense the people's school. It shaped itself continually to their needs and desires. It dealt with the subjects considered most useful in the ordinary duties of life. It was then, as it has remained ever since, near to the heart of the people.

The natural growth of the country, the increasing interest in scientific subjects, and the partial decline of Latin and Greek, the greater need of intelligent citizenship, and the added impetus which came from better teaching as the result of normal schools, caused a most rapid development of the common school system. The Kindergarten in one direction and the High School in the other were but outgrowths of this system.

BEGINNING OF
HIGH SCHOOLS

Boone in speaking of the High School says, "Its origin, its aims, its methods, all mark its kinship with institutions below rather than above it."¹ But the High Schools did not come into existence full-fledged as we find them to-day. It is true some had taken the place of the old grammar schools or academies and had expanded by adding new subjects to the curriculum, but the greater majority were the result of an expansion of the common school course by the continued addition of new subjects. There are no distinct marks of division to indicate where the elementary school ends, or where the high school begins. Whether the addition of a few new subjects to the common school course makes it a high school, a grammar school, or only a district graded school, is usually determined by the local community.

EXTENSION OF
THE NORMAL
COURSE

As the high school resulted from an expansion of the common schools, the normal schools, having been charged with the duty of fitting teachers for the common schools, nat-

¹ *Education in the United States*, p. 344.

urally enough extended their curricula to meet the growing needs of the teachers they trained. Had the high schools been the result of a sudden creation, or had there been at the time other teachers' seminaries, the normal schools might have remained true to their original purpose of training teachers for the elementary schools. Under the circumstances, however, they gradually extended their field to include the training of teachers for high schools, grammar schools and kindergartens, some even endeavoring to train teachers for colleges. And as the high schools became more and more developed, the difficulty of trying to cover the whole field became apparent. The work of the normal school was stretched to the utmost, becoming extended in quantity but thin in quality.

CHANGE IN
HIGHER EDU-
CATION.

Another point worthy of notice is the fact that at the beginning of normal instruction all schools in this country, whether higher or lower, were, in the true sense of the word, teaching or instructional institutions, that is, their primary object was to impart rather than to produce knowledge. The colleges had produced their great teachers like Mark Hopkins, but the student-teacher or investigator, like Agassiz, had not yet entered the field. The office of the college professor, like that of the teacher of the lower schools, was primarily one of instruction and not one of investigation. The scientific spirit which we have already mentioned as affecting the work in Germany had not yet taken hold of the people. But it was not long until this movement spread throughout the country. The colleges became universities; and the universities have become institutions of investigation and research, perhaps even more than of instruction. In this change of method the high schools of the country have been correspondingly affected, standing as they do upon the border line between the purely

instructional work of the lower schools and the specialization and research work of the higher.

RESEARCH AS
A FACTOR

As long as education remained largely a matter of instruction, or of imparting acquired knowledge, the normal schools were very successful in preparing teachers even for the high school; because by carefully massing the facts and systematizing the work of instruction according to well-known pedagogical principles the student was enabled to acquire more knowledge in less time. But when investigation and research became important factors in higher education, the normal schools, already taxed to their utmost, could not successfully prepare the specialists that were demanded for the high schools. To prepare specialists required time,—Agassiz might keep the student for six months on a single fish before proceeding to supply him with the facts already accumulated; but such a use of time was not consistent with the work and purposes of the normal schools.

STIMULUS OF
NORMAL
INSTRUCTION
TO HIGHER
EDUCATION.

While the normal schools have met with considerable opposition from one source and another, they have been of great service to the teaching profession, and have continually grown in the favor of the people.

The following statement, taken from the report of the Educational Committee of the General Assembly of Connecticut, 1863, expresses almost the unanimous verdict of similar committees in other states: "Testimony has been received from members of boards of education, district committees, principals of large public schools, and others interested in educational pursuits, from every county of the State—testimony which is confirmed by a careful investigation of all seeming opposition—that as a class the graduates and undergraduates of our State Normal schools are more sought for as teachers, pass better examinations, are stricter disci-

plinarians, are more thorough and systematic in teaching, waste less time in educational experiments, are more ready to improve by suggestions, have more laudable pride in their profession, show larger results, and give to school committees, parents and guardians better satisfaction than teachers from any other sources."

The success and aggressiveness of teachers trained in normal schools have had much to do in stimulating universities to establish departments of pedagogy. It is only when the normal schools with limited resources have overreached their bounds and have endeavored to prepare teachers for *all* grades of school work, that they have received well-merited criticism.

CHAPTER III

HISTORY OF THE EARLIEST EFFORTS FOR THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

As shown in Chapter II, the professional training of teachers for *elementary education* began in this country through the establishment of normal schools; and *according to a well-matured and thoroughly efficient plan*. Such, however, was not the case with the professional training of *secondary teachers*. Here the process was one of slow development, indigenous to the soil, interrupted and modified by the changing conditions of secondary education.

Whether as a result of the expanding curricula of normal schools and the formation of normal departments in universities, or, later, the establishment of university chairs of pedagogy and departments of education, the professional preparation of secondary teachers has never been very clearly separated from that of elementary teachers. In fact, the same pedagogical treatment has usually been considered equally valuable for either field. And it is only within the last few years that any serious attempt has been made to differentiate the professional training of elementary and secondary teachers.¹

NORMAL DE- PARTMENTS IN THE UNIVERSI- TIES	As normal schools, driven by what seemed to be a necessity, enlarged their curricula to make provision for teachers in higher education, so the colleges with a somewhat similar
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¹ See Dr. Harris' article, "The Future of the Normal School," *Educational Review*, Jan., 1899, and the present School Law regulating Normal Instruction in Massachusetts, California and Connecticut.

spirit endeavored to meet the needs of the people by extending their courses to include the preparation of teachers for elementary schools. Especially was this true of the state universities of the West, created at a time when normal schools were making headway in the East and before their establishment in the West. It was through the development of these normal departments in the universities that the first chairs of pedagogy came into existence. Another independent movement will be considered later.

BROWN
UNIVERSITY

Through the labors of Henry Barnard, while school commissioner of Rhode Island (1845-49), the people became thoroughly aroused on educational affairs, and in response to the efforts of his successor, Elisha R. Potter, Brown University established a Normal department in 1850, under the charge of Samuel S. Greene,¹ superintendent of the Providence schools. He retained his position as superintendent while at the same time performing the duties of Professor of Didactics in the University. This double relation is of interest in connection with the present arrangement at Brown University, whereby the Professor of Pedagogy being also principal of one of the Providence high schools.

PURPOSE AND
DEVELOPMENT
OF THE
DEPARTMENT

In defining the purpose of the new department, the annual catalogue of 1851-52, p. 43, says: "This department is opened for all those who wish to become professional teachers. A course of lectures, commencing on the 5th of November, will be given on the habits of mind necessary to eminent success in teaching; the relation of the teacher to the pupil; the principles which should guide in the organization of a

¹ The following brief statement taken from the *Historical Catalogue* (1764-1894) of *Brown University*, under the heading of "Professors," is of interest: "Samuel Stillman Greene, LL. D., Didactics, 1851-54; Mathematics and Civil Engineering, 1855-64; Natural Philosophy and Astronomy, 1864-83; died, 1883."

school; the arrangement and adaptation of studies to the capacity of the learner; the influences to be employed in controlling the passions, forming the habits and elevating the tastes of the young; and on the elements of the art of teaching, or the best methods of imparting instruction in reading, grammar, geography, history, mathematics, language, and the various other branches taught in our higher seminaries. All these lectures are accompanied with practical exercises, in which each member is to participate. For the benefit of teachers generally, a class has already been formed, consisting of persons not connected with the University. This class numbers at present fifty members. Lectures are given at the Lecture Room of the High School, on Benefit street, twice a week, on the various topics embraced in a course of elementary teaching."

In carrying forward his work, Prof. Greene established a second class of teachers and students, not members of the University, which in 1852 grew into a private Normal school, with D. P. Colburn, of the Bridgewater Normal, and Arthur Summer, of the Lancaster Normal, as assistant teachers. In 1854 this school, with D. P. Colburn as principal, was made a State Normal school, and shortly afterward was removed to Bristol.

The purpose for which the normal department of the University had been created having been met by the establishment of a state normal school, the University gave up its normal department and suspended its pedagogical work. The annual catalogue of 1854-55, p. 38, refers to the matter as follows: "In consequence of the establishment in Providence of the Rhode Island Normal school, instructions in this department of the University are for the present suspended. Students wishing to pursue a course in didactics may do it in connection with the abovementioned school."

No further pedagogical work was offered in the University

until 1893-94, when Walter Ballou Jacobs, A. M., principal of one of the Providence high schools, was made instructor in pedagogy. He gave, during the third term of that year, a three-hour course in "The history, theory and practice of organized education," elective for juniors, seniors and graduates. Prof. Jacobs has since been made Associate Professor of Pedagogics, but still continues as principal of one of the Providence high schools. He has been granted one or two extra instructors in the department of pedagogy, who, like himself, are also connected with the teaching staff of the city schools. The department of pedagogics is coördinate with the other departments of the University, and while the work is elective, it may count toward graduation.

We purpose giving in another chapter the later development of this department, but offer in this connection a statement showing the present arrangement for practice teaching, which was established in the fall of 1897. It is as follows: "From members of the senior class who have completed the course in Pedagogy offered during the senior year, the school committee of the city of Providence make appointments to the position of student-teacher in the high school. To those thus appointed the high school serves as a school of observation and practice in connection with the graduate course in Pedagogy. In return for the services rendered, the city gives such a student-teacher half the pay of a regular teacher. The time required each day is somewhat more than half the usual period of service. An unusual opportunity is thus offered student-teachers to gain a thorough knowledge of the theory of pedagogy, and at the same time practical experience in the art of teaching."¹

NORMAL DE-
PARTMENT IOWA
UNIVERSITY

As early as 1849, the Iowa legislature made provision for three state normal schools to be located in different parts of the state. The

¹ *Catalogue*, 1899-1900, p. 58.

Act carried with it an appropriation of \$500 per annum for each school, to be apportioned out of the University Fund, provided that in each case the people of the district contribute an equal amount for the erection of buildings. In accordance with this provision two schools were opened, one at Andrews and the other at Oskaloosa, but failing to receive the expected aid from the University Fund they soon discontinued. The Act appropriating money for normal schools was repealed in 1855, and the State University, in response to a general demand, opened a normal department.

For the first year the normal department was in charge of Mr. J. Van Valkenburg, and registered in all about seventy students. Notwithstanding the fact that it was made a department of the State University, it was at first conducted by separate teachers and the work was of the most elementary character.

The first circular announcement of the Normal Department, Sept., 1855, says, under condition of entrance: "The applicant must be twelve years of age if female, and fourteen years of age if male, and must be supplied with slate, pencil, blank-book, Webster's dictionary, and Mitchell's or McNally's geography and atlas. . . . The course of study in this school will begin with orthography, reading, penmanship, English grammar, mental and written arithmetic, geography, and physiology.

"The attention of pupils is directed, first, to a thorough review of elementary studies; second, to those branches of knowledge which may be considered as an expansion of the above-named elementary studies, or collateral to them; third, to the art of teaching and its modes."

In June, 1858, all instruction was suspended for want of funds to meet current expenses. Instruction in the normal course was resumed November, 1858, and in the collegiate courses September, 1860. Upon resuming the work in the

normal department, the requirements were raised and the age limit placed at fifteen for females and seventeen for males. A model school was attached to the department, and continued in operation until 1866, when it was abolished by the trustees. During its continuance the normal students were required to teach in it from two to four weeks, in their senior year.

The abolition of the model school, while in accord with the University authorities who were looking toward the higher development of the professional training of teachers, was disappointing to many of the best school men of the State. The State Superintendent, D. Franklin Wells, in his report for 1868, refers to the matter as follows: "The Normal Department of the University was opened in the year 1855, since which time upwards of 1000 persons have received therein a partial course of instruction. A limited number have graduated, some of whom are occupying the first places in the common and high schools of the State, and exerting an influence which is felt in constantly widening circles. Others have been called to responsible positions in other states. It is feared, however, that the department, though under the instruction of an able professor, has lost much of its efficiency as an agency for the practical training of teachers by the recent suspension and abolishment by the Board of Trustees of the model and training school formerly connected with it."

Beginning with 1862, the students in the normal department were gradually combined with the classes in the University and in the preparatory school for their academic instruction.

The following is the course of study for the normal department as offered in 1866:

"JUNIOR YEAR.

Fall Term.

Higher Arithmetic—Robinson.
History of United States.
Physiology.

Winter Term.

Algebra—Robinson.
Theory and Practice of Teaching—Page.
Reading and Spelling.

SENIOR YEAR.

Fall Term.

Rhetoric, Composition.
Algebra, Geometry—Robinson.
Natural Philosophy.

Winter Term.

Mental Philosophy—Wayland.
Ancient History—Wilson.
Inorganic Chemistry—Stockhardt.

Spring Term.

Moral Philosophy—Wayland.
Modern History—Wilson.
School Systems of Iowa.

Vocal music throughout the course. Students will practice teaching in the Model Training School during the entire course."

CHANGES IN
IDEAL, AND
GROWTH
OF THE
DEPARTMENT

From this time on the course of instruction was gradually raised, and in 1873 the normal department was merged into the academic, the reasons assigned being that, "Didactics, in the higher sense, is a liberal study. It includes the philosophy of mind, the laws of mental development, and all those branches of study and methods of instruction that are employed in general education. Besides, the course of study and methods of teaching in the academic department are such as would be selected if that department were organized and carried forward for the sole purpose of educating teachers for advanced schools. Such teachers need primarily accurate scholarship united with liberal culture. The instruction given in language, science, mathematics and literature, meets this demand." Again, as to aim it is said, "The design of this department hereafter will be to prepare students for *advanced schools*. Hence only those academic seniors who intend to become teachers, and special students

who may be qualified to be classed with them, will be allowed to pursue normal studies." ¹

In discussing the status of the normal department in 1877, President C. W. Slagle said: "The Normal Department is included in this category (*i. e.*, Collegiate Departments—D. W. A. L.). The question of its status was raised in 1861, in the Board of Trustees upon the proposition that a distinction should be made between the sense in which it was called a department and that in which the other chairs were so-called. After mature consideration the board decided that no such distinction should be made, and it has ever since, whether called a department or chair of didactics, been simply upon the same footing with the other professorships in the collegiate department. For several years a separate normal course was maintained and classes were graduated on completing it, but when the university from the advancement of its requirements for admission ceased to give instruction in the ordinary common school branches and so shut out those preparing for primary teaching, the board determined to offer preparation only for the higher departments of educational work, to which a large portion of the collegiate alumni are called as principals of high schools, superintendents, etc. They have, therefore, placed the studies relating to this branch as electives in the senior year of the collegiate courses, so that any graduate who chooses may receive instruction in this direction. They have further provided that any pupil in the university, though not intending to graduate, may enter these classes. Since the adoption of this plan there has been gratifying evidence of its success, and it is believed that in this respect the university is rendering important service in the work of popular education. It is further gratifying to observe that the thoughts of the most enlightened educators of the time are tending

¹ *Catalogue of State Univ. of Iowa, 1872-'73, p. 46.*

toward the adoption of a similar plan for other colleges. The University of Edinburgh has recently established a professorship of didactics. That distinguished educator, Secretary Northrop, of Connecticut, in a recent report commenting on this fact uses this language: 'It is a reproach to us that no similar professorship exists in any American college except in the State University of Iowa.'¹

The growth of the department is also made clearer by an outline of the teaching staff, with the corresponding titles. Following Mr. Valkenburg, from 1856 to 1866, Prof. D. Franklin Wells was in charge of the work, first as principal of the Normal Department, and later (1862) under the title of Professor of the Theory and Practice of Teaching in the University. He resigned in 1866 to become State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The following year Stephen N. Fellows, D. D., was made Professor of Didactics in the University, his title being changed in 1873 to that of Professor of Didactics and Political and Moral Science, and in 1878 to that of Professor of Mental and Moral Science and Didactics. In 1888 G. T. W. Patrick, A. M., was called to the latter chair, but transferred the following year to that of Professor of Philosophy. The next two years the Department of Didactics was without a head, and the instruction in pedagogy was given by the professors of Philosophy and Political Science. In 1890 Frank B. Cooper, A. B., was called to the chair, with the title of Professor of Pedagogy, and the following year Jos. J. McConnell was made Professor of Pedagogy. Professor McConnell resigned his position in 1901 to accept the city superintendency of schools, Cedar Rapids, Iowa, and Fred. E. Bolton, Ph.D. was appointed Professor of the Science and Art^s of Education.

Thus we see from this brief survey that the first independent collegiate department of pedagogy in the United

¹ Pres. C. W. Slagle, in *Report of the State University of Iowa*, 1877, p. 33.

States was the natural outgrowth of an elementary normal school connected with the University. The object at first was to educate common school teachers. The instruction was largely academic and of the most elementary nature. This changed gradually with the conditions of education in the State, until the need for which the department was created became supplied through other sources and the University outgrew its preparatory school; then a department for the professional training of secondary teachers came as a natural consequence.

Since 1864 the degree of Bachelor of Didactics has been offered to graduates in the regular courses who have completed the course in pedagogy and are able to give proof of two years' successful teaching after graduation; and since 1873 all distinctly normal features of the work have been discontinued and the department has been a purely professional one, without practice teaching.

THE COLLEGE
OF NORMAL IN-
STRUCTION, UNI-
VERSITY OF
MISSOURI

The development of pedagogical instruction in the University of Missouri, while slower and less systematic, has been in the main similar to that in the University of Iowa.

In 1867 the Missouri legislature passed an act establishing in the University of Missouri a chair of theory and practice of teaching. The department was opened in September, 1868, under the title of the College of Normal Instruction, and has been the source of much subsequent legislation and misunderstanding. While not so stated in the original statute, it seems to have been the intention of the legislature to make the theory and practice of teaching a department of the university co-ordinate in rank with law and medicine. This is indicated not only in subsequent acts, but also in the organization of the department itself.

In speaking of the college of normal instruction, the report of the University of Missouri for 1869 and '70 says: "The Constitution of the State of Missouri prescribes that there shall be established and maintained in the State University a department of instruction in teaching.

The Normal College, like a Law College, is a professional school. Its distinct design is to prepare teachers for their peculiar vocation. The elementary branches will be thoroughly taught and reviewed in the preparatory department, while in the normal school proper, prominence will be given to the *principles and methods, the theory and practice of teaching.*"

Mr. E. L. Ripley, A. M., was made principal of the college of normal instruction and Professor of the theory and practice of teaching. A model school was attached to the department and the following course offered:

" Freshman Year.

Reading, Orthography, Penmanship, Arithmetic, Geography, English Grammar, History of the United States, Drawing, Mapping.

Sophomore Year.

Algebra, Analytical Grammar, Physical Geography, Natural Philosophy, Physiology, General History, Latin, Elocution, Rhetoric, Book-keeping, Art of Teaching, Science of Government.

Junior Year.

Geometry, Trigonometry, Botany, Zoology, Astronomy, General History, Latin and Greek for Gentlemen, Latin and German or French for Ladies, Lectures on Theory and Practice.

Senior Year.

Latin, Greek and German, Surveying, Chemistry, Agricultural Chemistry, Geology, Mental Philosophy, Moral Philosophy, Philosophy of Education. Three months' practice."

The course as given above does not differ much from the usual advanced normal school course of the period, and a fair proportion of the graduates entered the profession of teaching. Of the twenty-one graduates for the years 1869 and 1870 inclusive, fourteen became teachers. In the

latter year there were eighty-three normal students and two hundred and sixteen pupils in the model school.

In 1876 the Normal course was somewhat enlarged and the title of Prof. Ripley changed to that of Professor of Pedagogics and Dean of the Normal Faculty. Graduates were given the degree of Principal, Bachelor, or Master of Pedagogics (Pe. P., Pe. B., Pe. M.). Three years later the Normal courses were rearranged, giving more attention to the elementary branches, and Miss Grace C. Bibb was made Professor of Pedagogics and Dean of the Normal Faculty. Another change occurred in 1884-85, when David R. McAnally became Professor of English and Dean of the Normal Faculty.¹ The elementary normal degree (Pe. P.) was conferred upon students completing the two years' course, arranged to meet the requirements of the school law of the State for teachers' certificates. The degree of Master and Bachelor of Pedagogics (Pe. M. and Pe. B.) were conferred upon graduates of the University who had taken, in addition to their collegiate work, two semesters of normal instruction.

In 1891 J. P. Blanton, A. M., was made professor of theory and practice of teaching and mental and moral philosophy. The following year the legislature repealed the law requiring preparatory courses to be offered in the University, and the first year's work of the elementary normal course was abolished, the work of the normal college being merged into that of the University. The requirements for entrance to the normal course were made the same as for the Freshman class of the University. The academic instruction was given by the different university professors and the pedagogical instruction by the professor of the theory and practice of teaching. Students desiring to secure the certificate of the elementary normal course, entitling them to teach in the State for a period of two years,

¹ He was succeeded two years later in the same chair by Edward A. Allen.

were required to take thirteen hours per week of academic work from the Freshman subjects of any of the academic courses, besides two hours per week of drawing and three hours per week of pedagogics, all to continue throughout the year. The degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy (B. P.) was retained for graduates of the University who had taken the required three hours of pedagogy during the junior and senior years, one-half of which (six hours) might count toward the academic degree. No practice teaching was offered, and the professional work consisted of the study of educational theories, educational psychology, and the organization and management of schools.

This is substantially the condition to-day. The Normal department, with its separate teachers, model school and elementary instruction, has given place to a department of pedagogy, with a single professor and distinctly professional work. The development of the department has been more interesting than this brief outline indicates, and it now seems that it will soon become in fact, what it has long been in theory, a professional school of education co-ordinate with that of law and of medicine.

WISCONSIN UNIVERSITY,
NORMAL DEPARTMENT

The preparation of teachers was clearly in mind in the foundation of the University of Wisconsin, as shown in the charter which provides for four departments as follows: the Department of Literature, Science and the Arts; the Department of Law; the Department of Medicine, and the Department of the Theory and Practice of Elementary Instruction.

THEORY AND PRACTICE OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION

The first effort to realize the above department of Theory and Practice of Elementary Instruction seems to have been made in 1856 when Daniel Read, LL. D., in addition to his collegiate appointment, was made professor of normal instruction in the department of "The Theory and Practice of

Elementary Instruction."¹ As the school funds were not sufficient to properly organize the department, the Regents in their announcement say: "Professional instruction will, therefore, be rendered in the art of teaching during the summer term of each year, by Prof. Read, and the young men of the state who may connect themselves with the teachers' class will be admitted to the instruction of the other departments of the University, as they may select."²

This resulted in several brief courses on education during the spring or summer terms of 1856, '57 and '58, beginning the last week in April and continuing until commencement, about the fourth Wednesday of July. The members of the teachers' class, in addition to professional instruction, had the privilege of carrying forward such other branches of study from the university courses as they might select.

The above arrangement proved unsatisfactory, and no further effort was made until 1868, when Prof. Charles A. Allen,³ who had been employed by the Board of Regents of Normal Schools, was appointed Professor of the Theory and Practice of Normal Instruction in the University. Prof. Allen continued at the head of the new normal department, which now extended its courses throughout the year, from 1863 to 1865, when, on his resignation, Joseph C. Pickard, A. M., Professor of Modern Languages and Literature, was made head of the normal department. He remained in this capacity for one year, after which the normal department was dropped.

In speaking of the department, the Board of Regents, in their annual report for 1865, say: "This department was opened March 6, 1863, since which time it has been in suc-

¹ His collegiate appointment was: Professor of Mental Philosophy, Logic, Rhetoric and English Literature.

² *Regents' Report of the University of Wisconsin for 1856*, p. 10.

³ Afterwards Principal of the San José (California) Normal School.

cessful operation. The primary aim of the department is to fit teachers for their work; but any who desire to pursue the higher English branches will be admitted to the classes. Candidates for admission to the Normal course must pass a satisfactory examination in the outlines of geography, elements of English grammar, and arithmetic to proportion."

Under the heading "Normal Department" the same report says: "The Faculty are of the opinion that the Normal department has made the University a more useful institution during the past three years than otherwise it could have been. It is not, however, to be disguised that among former students of the University, and among leading ones now in the institution, there has been a strong feeling of opposition to the department, mainly on the ground of its bringing females into the University. There has been an apprehension that the standard of culture would be lowered in consequence. No reason whatever has as yet existed for this apprehension. There has been no such mingling of classes in the higher and more recondite subjects as to render this effect possible even if it would be the result, and, in point of fact, there has not been a period in the history of the University when some few students have carried their studies to a higher or wider range than in recent classes. The resignation of Professor Allen, who has conducted this department since its existence with signal energy and success, raises new questions for the decision of the Board. As to whether there shall be a professor to fill the place of Professor Allen, or whether there shall be the union of the Normal and Preparatory departments by the election of a principal to have charge of both departments, or whether the department shall be dropped altogether."¹

The above report is interesting in this connection, showing not only the interest of the University authorities in the

¹ *Regents' Report of the University of Wisconsin, 1865, p. 22.*

normal department, but also the systematic opposition that it encountered. The reference to the opposition that had been created against the department, based upon the fear that the admitting of females to the University would lower its standard of culture, is rather amusing in the light of present conditions.

The opposition prevailed and a year later the department was discontinued. From the first the academic instruction had been conducted in the preparatory or collegiate departments of the University, and not under separate normal teachers, as in Iowa and Missouri. This may have been a cause of the opposition; besides, in 1866 the Board of Regents of Normal Schools opened the first state normal school of Wisconsin at Platteville, and two years later the one at Whitewater, thus removing the necessity for a department of elementary normal instruction in the University.

No further provision was made for pedagogical instruction in the University until 1885, when a University Department of the Science and Art of Teaching was created, and Prof. J. W. Stearns, LL. D., placed in charge. Three years later the title of the department was changed to that of Philosophy, and Dr. Stearns made Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy.

Since the beginning of the department, in 1885, the work has been planned primarily with the view of the professional training of secondary teachers. The courses of pedagogy offered in 1885 were as follows:

"Fall Term.

1. Educational Praxis, including School Economy, Organization, Management and Methods of Teaching.
2. The Theory of Teaching, including the Psychological Basis of Methods and Courses of Study.

Spring Term.

3. The History of Educational Theories and Practices in Europe and America.
4. Superintendence and Comparative Study of Educational Systems of the United States."

In 1897 the department was enlarged and the title changed to the "School of Education," Dr. J. W. Stearns becoming director of the School of Education and Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, and M. V. O'Shea, B. L., Professor of the Science and Art of Education.

The development of the department has not been, as in Iowa and Missouri, a continuous growth, but, on the contrary, commencing as a Normal class in the University, then a Normal department, it was discontinued with the beginning of State Normal schools, and, after a rather long interval, recreated into a Pedagogical department for the professional training of secondary teachers.

THE UNIVERSITY
OF KANSAS,
NORMAL DE-
PARTMENT

The University of Kansas grew out of the University of Lawrence, a Presbyterian school which was established in 1859, and which contained at the time of the transfer a normal department. Such a department was also clearly foreshadowed by an Act of the Legislature approved March, 1864, chartering the present State University. Section 10 of the Act says: "The university shall consist of six departments: 1. The Department of Science, Literature and the Arts; 2. The Department of Law; 3. The Department of Medicine; 4. The Department of Theory and Practice of Elementary Instruction; 5. The Department of Agriculture; 6. The Normal Department."¹

The Normal Department of the University was first opened in 1876 with an enrollment of thirty-five students. Complete courses were offered and full instructions given in the common school branches throughout the year. It seems to have been the purpose of the Regents to establish a separate normal department with its own teachers; but as the law had made no appropriation for the support of this de-

¹ *University of Kansas Catalogue*, 1871-'72, p. 43.

partment it was necessary to modify the original plan. For this reason, in the following year, instead of a separate normal department, "two courses were established, an elementary and a higher normal course. For admission to the latter, the applicant must be prepared in reading, spelling, elements of English grammar, penmanship, arithmetic, algebra through quadratic equations, descriptive and physical geography, elements of natural philosophy, history and constitution of the United States, and industrial drawing."¹

The expressed object of the higher normal course was to give preparation for instructors in preparatory high schools and teachers' institutes.² All the academic studies of the normal department were pursued in the regular preparatory and collegiate classes.

Between the years 1877 and 1885 inclusive, there were seventy-two students graduated from the normal department, ten of whom were of the class of 1885. The department, however, had met with determined opposition from the normal schools (public and private) of the state,³ and from the university faculty itself. On this account, by action of the Board of Regents, the normal department was discontinued in 1885, and the Dean, P. J. Williams, D. D., was made the Professor of Didactics in the university.

The first course arranged for the new department of Didactics (1885-6) is given as follows:

"Studies: The same as those of the Freshman and Sophomore classes in any of the four full courses."

" JUNIOR CLASS.

First Term—Didactics.

Second Term—Didactics.

¹ *University of Kansas Catalogue*, 1877-8, p. 34.

² *University of Kansas Catalogue*, 1881-'82, p. 39.

³ The first State Normal School of Kansas was established at Emporia in 1864-5.

SENIOR CLASS.

First Term—History of Sciences, half term.

Systems of Education, half term.

Mental and Moral Science. One of the optional studies.

Second Term—Practice teaching.

Political Economy. One of the optionals."

"Students who take this course are entitled to the degree B. A. or B. S., as in other courses. The *practice teaching* must cover a year's successful work in the school-room, either before or after graduation. This, in addition to the course, will entitle the graduates to the degree of Bachelor of Didactics (B. D.)."¹

For the next two years but two courses were offered in didactics, methods of teaching and the history of education, the first for five hours per week throughout the year, the second for five hours per week during the second semester. No practice teaching was offered.

The former opposition still continued, and in 1888 the department of didactics was closed. It was again reorganized in 1893 under the title of the department of pedagogy, with A. S. Olin, A. B., as instructor. The department has since been changed (1899) to read "Department of Education," and Prof. Olin's title to that of "Professor of Education."

DEPARTMENT OF PEDAGOGY, UNIVERSITY OF INDIANA As far back as 1839 the trustees of the University of Indiana began to consider the advisability of establishing a department for the special preparation of common school teachers.

But it was not, however, until 1852 that the agitation became crystallized, and a normal school was opened in connection with the preparatory department of the University.

The expressed object of the normal department was "to fit teachers for the common schools of the state." Its

¹ *University of Kansas Catalogue*, 1884-85, p. 40.

organization was simple, including the creation of a single "Professorship of Didactics," to which Daniel Read, Professor of Latin and Greek, was appointed professor, and the establishment of a "Model School," of which Mr. John C. Smith was made first principal.

The course at first consisted of a series of lectures on teaching and school management, and a somewhat careful review of the common school branches which was thought to be the principal requisite in the preparation of an elementary teacher. "Intending teachers occasionally took secondary work in the preparatory classes, but the thought was not common that professional qualifications meant something more than better scholastic attainments in the subjects to be taught, and the theory of teaching was little studied."¹

For a number of years the normal department struggled along under many disappointments and interruptions. It was discontinued in 1858 and remained closed until 1864, when it was again established under the charge of D. E. Hunter, who had formerly been principal of the model school, and who was at the time of appointment city superintendent of the public schools of Bloomington, Indiana, the seat of the University. The school was now opened to both men and women, but it remained in operation only a few terms and was again discontinued.

In 1868 the normal department was once more reorganized, in response to a general demand from the teachers of the State, and ex-State Superintendent George W. Hoss, who was at the time Professor of English in the University, was in addition appointed "Professor of Didactics" in the normal department.² In discussing this period of the school,

¹ Boone, *History of Education in Indiana*.

² "Professors of English Literature and the Theory and Practice of Teaching: Rev. Henry B. Hibben, A. M., from 1860 to 1861; Hon. Geo. W. Hoss, LL. D.,

Dr. R. G. Boone, to whom I am indebted for much of the above, says "Professor Hoss was just fresh from his official term as State Superintendent, and knew well the needs of the State in regard to better teaching. . . . But the work was greatly disappointing; it was made but an incident in the constitution of the college, occurring in the spring term only, and without any well-defined plan."¹

Five years later, 1873, the normal department was again closed, and, as the Indiana State Normal School had been established at Terre Haute three years previous, there was now no immediate necessity for the continuance of an elementary normal department in connection with the State University, and its reorganization was not again attempted.

Nothing further of interest regarding the professional training of teachers occurred in the University until 1886, when, in response to a different demand and with an entirely different ideal, the university authorities created an independent collegiate "Department of Pedagogics." Superintendent Richard G. Boone, A. M., then of Frankfort, Indiana, was appointed "Professor of Pedagogics" and Acting Professor of Philosophy, and given the task of organizing the new department. He outlined for the first year ten courses, as follows: I. Educational Psychology, first term, two hours per week; II. School Economics, first term, three hours per week; III. History of Education, second term, daily; IV. Teaching as an Art, second term, three hours per week; V. School Supervision, second term, two hours per week; VI. Philosophy of Education, third term, daily; VII. Laboratory Studies; 1. Illiteracy as a civil and political factor; 2. Compulsory Education; 3. Industrial Education; 4. The

from 1868 to 1871; Rev. John L. Gay, A. M., from 1871 to 1872; Rev. George Parrott, A. M., from 1872 to 1873; Hon. George W. Hoss, LL. D., from 1873 to ——" *Annual Report of Ind. Univ.*, 1873-74.

¹ Boone, *History of Education in Indiana*.

Kindergarten; 5. Professional Training, first term, two hours per week; second term, three hours per week; VIII. Foreign School Systems; IX. American State School Systems; X. School Legislation. The catalogue does not state the amount of time given to the last three subjects.

PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING FOR
HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHERS

The new idea in regard to the professional training of teachers, or rather the conviction which was becoming prevalent that even college graduates in order to become efficient teachers need professional training, is shown so clearly in the statements regarding the nature and purposes of the new department that it has been thought best to quote in full.

"These courses in Pedagogics have been recently added to the curriculum of the Indiana University. Their character may, therefore, be set forth somewhat in detail. The attention of advanced college students, of teachers of experience, who wish to make a formal, systematic study of their profession, and of such others as, in the judgment of the faculty, have sufficient preparation and maturity for it, is called to the work of this department.

It is designed, first and chiefly, with the present social conditions, to meet the demand for well-prepared teachers for the higher positions in the public schools and colleges. The best positions in Indiana and elsewhere are held by men whose first qualification is a sufficient scholarship. Their learning secures them recognition. But these also need professional training. To provide adequately for this special culture is the primary aim of the present department.

Its aim, secondly, is to dignify and rationalize the professional aspect of teaching. To this end is offered a course (I) in applied psychology, with the purpose of setting forth the fundamental relations of a knowledge of mind to the work of teaching. The text in use is supplemented by lectures and discussions on the general and acquired functions of mind, mental processes, and the nature and conditions of mental growth and development. Never before did teachers, school officers and others interested in education manifest a more earnest desire to understand the philosophy of mental

culture; and the beginnings of that philosophy are found in the nature of mind.

Courses II–VI are arranged to cover fully the three phases of pedagogical study—the practical, the historical, and the theoretical. Many students who do not make a specialty of Pedagogics, and who have no intention of entering the profession of teaching, will find an excellent culture study in courses III and IV.

The department of Pedagogics is not in any sense a normal school, and while in entire sympathy with such professional agencies, it is not designed to trench upon any ground now so occupied. Its professors have no pedagogical dogma to enforce, but hope for the bettering of Indiana schools, and the elevation of the profession.”¹

Here, in the above, as just prior in the universities of Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Johns Hopkins, and others, we find what seem to be the true beginnings of departments created for the primary object of the professional training of secondary teachers; as, formerly, the normal schools had been established for the immediate purpose of the professional training of elementary teachers.

Commenting a few years later on the nature of the department as now constituted, Dr. Boone says: “The work from the beginning was conceived and directed from the point of view of the university—not the normal school. Its original constitution provided a course covering two years, since extended to three, and open to the members of the higher college classes. It includes professional work only. A liberal academic training is presupposed; not less than Freshman and preferably Sophomore standing. The work is entirely elective, being freely opened to students of other departments. . . .

It employs neither practice schools nor model lessons, and is not designed to present an established or exclusive art of teaching. It is content to have studied in a liberal

¹ *Catalogue of Indiana University*, 1886–87, pp. 48 and 49.

way the nature and conditions of education as the ground upon which to erect, or (with a different figure) as furnishing the doctrine out of which may be evolved an approved art. . . .

The department is one of eighteen co-ordinate departments in the University, each covering four years, and each leading to the degree of B. A. Every graduate from the department must have had one year of college English, one year of mathematics, one year of laboratory science, and two years of some language other than English, and of college grade; the full course in pedagogics; and sufficient work chosen from other, but in general, related departments to make up the minimum of studies required for graduation (thirty-six terms)."¹

The department as established in 1886 remained without any particular change, other than slight modifications of the courses offered from year to year, until 1894, when Dr. Boone, professor of pedagogics, accepted a call to the presidency of the Michigan State Normal School at Ypsilanti. The department of pedagogics in the Indiana University was then made a sub-department to that of philosophy, and W. L. Bryan, Ph. D., professor of philosophy, was given the new title of Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, and placed in charge of both departments. Since then several new instructors have been added, but the department still (1902) remains a sub-department of philosophy.

KENTUCKY.
STATE COLLEGE,
NORMAL
DEPARTMENT

By virtue of an act of the Legislature, approved March 13, 1878, the State Agricultural and Mechanical College of Kentucky was separated from the Kentucky University, with which it had been connected since its establishment in 1865, and made an independent college of the State. An act of

¹ Boone, *History of Education in Indiana*, p. 382 ff.

the Legislature, approved April, 1880, created in connection with this college a "Normal Department, or course of instruction for irregular periods, designed more particularly, but not exclusively, to qualify teachers for common and other schools."¹

The normal department was established the following year, and Maurice Kirby, A. M., Professor of Moral and Political Philosophy, placed in charge, under the title of "Professor of Moral and Political Philosophy and Principal of the Normal Department." From the first the school has been looked upon as a co-ordinate department of the college. The academic instruction is given in the other departments of the college, or of the academy, which is also a part of the institution. The professional instruction is given by the principal of the normal school, who is likewise a member of the college faculty.

At first the course was three years in length and covered the subjects usually presented in normal schools of that period.

The requirements for admission, as given in the catalogue for 1883, are stated as follows: "Applicants for admission into the Normal School must be prepared to stand an examination in English Grammar, Arithmetic and Geography. Normal students who receive free tuition will be required, on entering, to sign an obligation to teach within the limits of Kentucky for a period as long as that during which they receive free tuition."

With no provision for practice teaching, the aim of the school seems to be to have all instruction of the college presented in such a way as "to illustrate to the pupil-teachers in the various classes the latest and best methods of teaching these subjects."²

¹ *Kentucky State School Law*, 1880.

² *Catalogue of 1894-95*, p. 46.

There are at present four courses offered: 1. A four years' course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy; 2. A two years' course leading to a state diploma; and 3 and 4. Two elementary courses preparatory for county and state certificates.

The purpose of the department may best be seen from the statement of Ruric N. Roark, Ph. D., principal of the normal school: "Although organized as a Department of the College co-ordinate with the other departments, yet the Department of Pedagogy is more properly a school in itself, made so by the necessities of the Public School system of the State. Therefore, in addition to offering full work in Pedagogy (Educational Psychology and its applications in School Economy and educational methods), this Department also provides academic instruction for teachers who desire to fit themselves for higher grades of work. In administering the Department, the real needs and limitations of the average Public School teacher are kept constantly in view, and the elevation of the common schools of the State is the basic principle of the work."¹

Several minor changes have occurred in the work since the organization of the department, but it still remains, properly speaking, only a normal school and not a collegiate department of pedagogy for the professional training of secondary teachers.

There are two state normal schools in Kentucky, one at Frankfort for colored students and one at Louisville for whites. There are also a number of colleges in the State that have lately established normal departments; among the latter is the Kentucky University, a denominational institution controlled by the Disciples of Christ, which established a "Normal College" in September, 1899, quite similar to that in the Kentucky State College above described. It was

¹ *Catalogue for 1899-1900*, p. 30.

the Kentucky University with which the State College was for a number of years affiliated as indicated above.

UNIVERSITY
OF NORTH
CAROLINA,
NORMAL
DEPARTMENT

Among the first institutions of higher education in the South to make provision for the special preparation of teachers was that of the University of North Carolina. The constitution of the State, adopted in 1868, contains the following clause, Article IX, Section 14: "As soon as practicable after the adoption of this constitution, the General Assembly shall establish and maintain, in connection with the University, a department of Agriculture, of Mechanics, of Mining, and of *Normal Instruction*." The condition under which this constitution was adopted and the stirring times which followed in state administration,¹ caused but little attention to be given to the fulfilment of the above section.

It was in accordance with a provision of the amended constitution, entitled "An act to establish Normal schools," ratified March 9, 1877, that the State Board of Education was authorized to establish such a school in connection with the State University. An appropriation of \$2,000 annually for Normal instruction was made by the State Legislature. "The State Board, with the concurrence of the Trustees and Faculty of the University, concluded to have a Summer Normal School of six weeks' duration, beginning the third of July, 1877, the instruction to be by experts trained in Normal methods. No charge was made for tuition. Pecuniary aid was given out of an annual fund of \$500 (one year,

¹The constitution was adopted during the reconstruction period after the Civil War, when the State administration was composed largely of Northern officers and recent settlers in sympathy with the national administration. Hence the legislative acts of this body had but little binding force upon the State administrations that followed soon after.—G. W. A. L.

\$800), donated by Rev. Dr. Sears, agent of the Peabody Fund, to those unable to meet their necessary expenses."¹

The above arrangement of summer normal schools or teachers' institutes was continued each year during the summer vacations of the University until 1885, when a normal department, continuing throughout the year, was established instead.

These summer normal schools at the University were largely attended by the teachers of the State, reaching one year 402, and averaging 310. The instruction was mainly academic, devoted almost entirely to a study of the elementary branches. Prominent teachers were called, both from within and from without the State, to give instruction. Much good was accomplished in arousing the teachers of the State and in creating a desire for graded schools, but the term was too short for efficient instruction, and the lack of preparation on the part of the changing student body made the work somewhat discouraging. To the President, K. P. Battle, LL. D., is due in large part both the origin and the success of the movement for normal instruction.

BEGINNING OF
STATE NORMAL
SCHOOLS Prior to 1877 no normal schools had been established by the State, but along with the establishment of a summer normal school for whites at the state university, the state board of education opened the first state normal school for colored youths at Fayetteville. This was followed shortly afterward (1881) by the creation of four additional summer normal schools for whites and a like number of state normal schools for colored students. The former, however, had no permanent location and were rather of the nature of county teachers' institutes of five or six weeks' duration.

In 1885-86 the university authorities discontinued the

¹ *Catalogue of 1877-78*, p. 59.

summer normals and established a normal department instead, appointing Nelson B. Henry, professor of the science and art of teaching. The academic instruction was given in connection with the other departments of the university.

The aim of the department is set forth as follows: "The Normal Department, designed to train teachers for the schools of the State, has been established in accordance with the Constitution thereof, and by recent Act of the Legislature, is free of tuition to young men preparing themselves for the purpose of teaching, on condition that they sign a pledge to teach at least one year after leaving the University. On passing approved examinations upon the studies enumerated in the Normal Department, the student will receive a certificate attesting this fact, and setting forth the degree of proficiency attained."¹

The course as outlined consisted of two years' work as follows:

"FIRST YEAR.

First Term.—English (2), Algebra (3), Physiology (3), History of North Carolina (2), Commercial Arithmetic (1), Reviews and Methods of Teaching (5).

Second Term.—English (2), Algebra (3), Zoölogy and Botany (3), History of the United States (2), Book-keeping (1), School Economy (4).

SECOND YEAR

First Term.—English (1), Algebra (4), Physical Geography (1), Elocution (2), Chemistry (3), or Physics or Latin (4), Graded Schools (3), Seminary (1).

Second Term.—English (1), Physical Geography (1), Geometry (4), Chemistry (3), or Physics or Latin (4), Methods of Culture—Educational Psychology (2), History of Education (3), Seminary (1)."²

The degree of Bachelor of Pedagogics (Pe. B.) was granted in connection with the Bachelor's degree from the university to students completing the course in the science and art of teaching.

¹ *Catalogue of 1886-87*, p. 44.

² *Ibid.*, p. 45.

CLOSING OF THE
NORMAL
DEPARTMENT

In 1885, in lieu of a larger appropriation from the State to the University, the \$2,000 normal instruction fund was diverted to four summer normal schools in different parts of the State, \$500 to each. Two years later the Agricultural and Mechanical College was separated from the state university, and the \$7,500 annually received from the Land Grant Fund was thus lost to the University. This curtailment of funds made it necessary to diminish the teaching force, which was done by dropping three departments, *i. e.*, the department of Mining, of Biology, and of Normal Instruction.

With the exception of a few special courses designed to meet the wants of teachers, offered by the heads of different collegiate departments, nothing further was done for the professional training of teachers until 1893, when the university established a collegiate department of the "History and Philosophy of Education," to which Edwin A. Alderman, Ph. B., was appointed as professor. The following year Professor Alderman was made President of the University, and Clinton White Toms was appointed Professor of Pedagogy. A year later Professor Alderman was again made the head of the pedagogical department, which position he retained until the year 1897-98, when the present incumbent, Marcus Cicero Stephens Noble, became professor of pedagogy.

THE TRAINING
OF SECONDARY
TEACHERS.

Since the organization of the pedagogical department in 1893, the work has been planned more particularly for the professional training of secondary teachers, as is indicated by the following paragraph: "This Department seeks to promote the study of the science and art of education, to give training in the organization and administration of schools, and to prepare university students for the higher positions in the public and private school service. It is also intended to bring the sec-

ondary schools of the State into closer relations with the University.

"The courses in the History and Philosophy of Education are intended to have for the student a definite culture value as well as professional value, by interpreting for him institutions and ideals of the past."¹

The courses offered in the department of pedagogy have remained quite constant and are (1901) as follows: 1. The Science of Education (2); 2. The Art of Teaching (2); 3. History of Education (2); 4. Philosophy of Education (2); 5. The Study of Childhood (2); 6. Herbartian Pedagogy (2). The work of the department is conducted by a single professor and no provision is made for practice teaching.

DEPARTMENT
OF PEDAGOGY,
UNIVERSITY OF
MINNESOTA

The first act for the organization of the University of Minnesota was passed by the territorial legislature in 1851. The following years were trying ones to the new Territory, and it was not until 1867 that the preparatory department of the university was opened for the reception of students, and not until two years later that the first collegiate classes were organized. At this time the State was already in possession of three State normal schools, one at Winona, established in 1860; one at Mankato, opened in 1868; and one at St. Cloud, opened in 1869. Probably on this account, no provision was made by the university authorities for the establishment of a normal department in connection with the university.

The first mention made of pedagogical instruction being offered in the university is in the year 1885-86, when Harry P. Judson, M. A., was called as Professor of "History and

¹ *Catalogue of 1893-94*, p. 53.

Lecturer on Pedagogics." The only statement, however, regarding the work, that I have been able to find, is as follows: "A course of lectures on the Science and Art of Teaching, elective to the Senior class, is given in the third term."¹

This arrangement seems to have continued in force until the year 1893, when ex-State Superintendent David L. Kiehle, LL. D., was appointed lecturer on pedagogy, and a separate, co-ordinate department of pedagogy was established. Between the years 1885-93, Professor Judson offered one pedagogical course, the last term of each year, open as an elective to seniors.

OUTLINE OF THE DEPART- MENT IN LATER YEARS	During the first year of the pedagogical department (1893) there were three courses offered, all elective to seniors, designated as follows: I. "The Development of Child Mind;" II. "The American School System, including organization and supervision;" III. "Educational History and Theories."
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In addition to the above there was established a special university teachers' course, requiring two years for its completion, and designed to furnish preparation for teaching for those students who were unable to complete a full university course. Candidates for entrance were required to satisfy the heads of the various departments under whom they were to receive their academic instruction, as to their fitness.

In the year 1894-95, Dr. Kiehle was made professor of pedagogy, and a year later (Announcement for 1895-96), after a number of slight modifications, the university teachers' course is described as follows: "This course is provided for those who wish, by a more extended scholarship and a more systematic study of education, to prepare for positions of supervision and teaching in the departments of higher

¹ *Calendar for 1885-86*, p. 54.

education. It is also for the general student who, in the home and in the State, is interested in the proper care, training and education of children and youth, and who is willing to give to this subject the same intelligent study that is accorded to other problems of history and sociology."

"The course covers two years, or twenty-four terms¹ of work. In order to secure reasonable thoroughness in the subject-matter, at least fifteen terms, including pedagogy, must be selected from the following list:

Latin,	Botany,	Geology,
French,	Zoölogy,	Pedagogy,
German,	Physics,	Philosophy,
English,	Chemistry,	History,
	Mathematics and Astronomy.	

and in which no study shall be pursued less than three terms. The remaining terms may be selected under the general regulations of the University. The course of special lectures and the seminars shall be optional without credit; provided, however, that students who take at least ten or twelve special lectures, with the required readings and examinations upon the same—equivalent to half a term's work—shall be allowed one-half term's credit. Students completing the course prescribed receive the University Teachers' Certificate."

CONDITION "This course is elective to juniors and seniors
FOR ENTRANCE pursuing regular courses in the college of science, literature and the arts."

"It is also open to all graduates from the advanced course of the State normal schools of Minnesota who have had one year's experience in teaching, and to all graduates of State

¹ At this time the University was running on a three-term basis, and what is evidently meant by the word "term," as used above, is one study carried for four recitations per week for one-third of a year.

high schools of the first and second classes, who have had two years' experience in teaching."¹

The university teachers' course as outlined above remained practically the same until the year 1900, when it was discontinued as a special course; the university teachers' certificate being granted now only to university graduates as indicated below:

"Upon graduation from the college of science, literature and arts, students who have completed two terms of psychology (or one of psychology and one of logic) before the close of the junior year, and the first three terms of pedagogy, and who have attained a general average of 85 per cent. in all studies, may apply for and will receive, upon the vote of the faculty, the University State Teachers' Certificate, which by the State law authorizes them to teach in the public schools of Minnesota for two years from its date. After that time, upon satisfactory evidence of success, the certificate may be made perpetual by the endorsement of the state superintendent of public instruction and the president of the university."²

PRESENT

CONDITION

The department of pedagogy remains, as when first established in 1893, a separate, co-ordinate department of the university. Dr. Kiehle remained professor in charge and sole instructor until his resignation in July, 1902, when Dr. Geo. F. James was called to the department as Professor of Pedagogy. The courses now offered are as follows: I. Philosophy of Education; II. Methodology; III. School Organization and Administration; IV. Ancient Education; V. Mediæval and Modern Education; VI. School Systems; VII. Visitation of Schools; VIII. Special Seminar Courses.

With the exception of the lectures given by Professor Judson of the history department (1885-93), the thought of the work in pedagogy has been aimed rather toward the professional preparation of secondary teachers. This is seen in the first paragraph, quoted above, describing the univer-

¹ *Catalogue for the year 1894-95*, p. 93.

² *University Bulletin*, June 1, 1900, p. 89.

sity teachers' course. This paragraph still continues to be published in the university catalogue as indicating the purpose of the pedagogical department.

UNIVERSITY
OF UTAH,
NORMAL
DEPARTMENT

In Utah the State University and the State Agricultural College are separate institutions, the former being located at Salt Lake City and the latter at Logan. There is a somewhat peculiar arrangement existing in this State whereby the State University and the State Normal School are combined into one institution, the latter being established as a sub-department of the former.

The State Normal School, as it is called, is conducted in a separate building, and in part by separate instructors. It maintains a model training school, covering the first eight grades, and offers a four years' normal course, the fourth year of which ranks on a par with the freshman year in the university. Aside from the normal department (State Normal School), the object of which is to prepare elementary teachers, there is a collegiate department of pedagogy intended to provide for high school teachers, principals and superintendents. "The purpose of the university in offering advanced work in pedagogical subjects is more especially to prepare those of its graduates who may select such work for the higher positions in the public service, such as those of school superintendents, principals, teachers in the high schools, etc."¹

The department of pedagogy was established in 1888, but the state normal school dates still further back.

The professor of pedagogy is also principal of the normal school, and the professional instruction seems to be about the same, whether to normal or college students. The professional courses as offered in 1900 were as follows:

¹ *University Annual*, 1900-01, p. 49.

"1. The Philosophy of Education; 2. Advanced Methods; 3. Advanced Psychology; 4. History of Education; 5. Pedagogy; 6. Educational Psychology; 7. Special Methods; 8. Practice or Training."

The pedagogical courses do not lead to any special degree, but graduates of the University who complete the professional requirements receive in addition to the university degree, a special "Normal Diploma."

OTHER STATE
UNIVERSITIES
WITH NORMAL
DEPARTMENTS

Under quite similar arrangements to those described in the University of Utah, the state universities of North and South Dakota and of Wyoming began from the first to provide for the professional training of teachers through separate normal departments. Prior to the division of the Territory and the admission of the states of North and South Dakota, which occurred November 2, 1889, the University of Dakota was situated at Vermillion. After the division of the Territory this school became the University of South Dakota, while the University of North Dakota was removed to Grand Forks. In the former, a normal department had been established at the opening of the institution in 1884, but was discontinued in 1890-91 for the following reasons: "By reason of reduced appropriations and for the further reason that the State has two Normal Schools, the Regents have ordered the normal department discontinued in the University."¹

A department of pedagogy has since been established (1894-95) in charge of Geo. M. Smith, A. M., Professor of Greek Language and Literature, and Pedagogy, now (1901) Professor of Modern Languages and Literature, and Pedagogy.

¹ *Catalogue of 1890-91*, p. 48

In the University of North Dakota there was established in 1891 both a collegiate department of pedagogy and a separate normal department. Joseph Kennedy, B. S., is both principal of the normal school and professor of psychology and pedagogy in the university. Graduates of the normal department are admitted to junior standing in the university. President Merrifield, in his annual report for 1900, speaks of the normal department as follows: "The Normal Department costs the State practically nothing, for in all *academic* subjects the Normal students join classes already formed, while in the professional subjects they come under the instruction of the Department of Pedagogy, which in all modern universities is a co-ordinate and essential department."

"The aim of the Normal Department is to prepare teachers for the higher grades and for high schools throughout the State."

UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING In Wyoming, the State Normal School is combined with the State University, forming one of three separate departments of the latter—collegiate, normal and preparatory. The principal and professor of pedagogy in the normal department, Henry Merz, M. A., is also professor of philosophy and social science in the University. The normal department was established in 1891, and still continues to constitute the only professional department for the training of teachers in the university.

DENOMINATIONAL INSTITUTIONS In the West, as in the East, denominational institutions for higher education paved the way for state universities, but like their eastern prototypes they have been more conservative and far less influenced by the changing ideals of the people. Consequently, they have been slower in modifying their courses to

meet the demands for professionally trained teachers. Nevertheless, many denominational institutions, especially throughout the great central west, have made commendable efforts to bring their schools into direct touch with the people and to establish special departments for the training of teachers. Such institutions have usually followed in the wake of the state institutions as above described and present but little regarding normal training that is different or especially new. One illustration will suffice.

IOWA COLLEGE,
DEPARTMENT
OF PEDAGOGY In the early history of Iowa college (in the sixties) some effort was made to provide prospective teachers with a little elementary pedagogical instruction, chiefly in connection with the preparatory department of the college. In 1871 a definite movement was inaugurated to raise an endowment for a professorship in the college of the "Theory and Practice of Teaching." This was not successful until 1879, but the trustees had gone forward with the plan and had established a combined "Normal and English Department," authorizing that the normal students be allowed to recite with such classes in the college, academy and English department as they were prepared to join.

The department of pedagogy as first established (1879) was designated the "Department of the Theory and Practice of Teaching" and consisted of one year's course in didactics, covering the history of education, the philosophy of education and methods of teaching. The non-professional subjects were given in connection with the preparatory, academic or collegiate classes.

In describing the advantages of the department the catalogue of 1890 says: "One of the peculiar advantages of this Department is this: Candidates for the profession of teaching, if somewhat advanced in some of the subject matter to

be taught in our schools, are not obliged to go through an extended Normal School Course of several years, including much repetition in branches already mastered ; but, by giving all their time to one or two branches, for which they have special aptitude or in which they have made comparatively less proficiency, they can accomplish in a year, in these specialties and in Didactics, what would require, under other circumstances several years' time."¹

In 1891-92 the title of the department was changed to that of the Department of Pedagogy, and the title of Rev. K. Edson, A. M., who had been with the department from the first, was changed to that of "Iowa Professor of Pedagogy." The following year the new Department of Philosophy and Pedagogy was created, and Jas. Simmons, Jr., A. M., was called as Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogics, an arrangement which still continues in force. Since the combination of philosophy and pedagogy in one department, philosophy, psychology, ethics and logic receive more attention and pedagogy less. In the latter subject are offered two courses, one on the "History of Educational Theory and Practice," three hours per week, First semester, and one on Educational Psychology, three hours per week, Second semester.

There seems to be more of a tendency on the part of denominational institutions to combine departments, probably on account of the scarcity of funds. Consequently separate departments of pedagogy are less common here than in more prosperous institutions.

SUMMARY

We have given in the above chapter a somewhat brief survey of the history of pedagogical instruction as it occurred in those universities that were first in making provision for the professional training of teach-

¹ *Catalogue of 1890*, p. 39.

ers. The universities concerned are generally state institutions and belong for the most part to those of the Great Central West. The two schools from the South—the one from Kentucky and the other from North Carolina—are included, not so much on account of the time when pedagogical instruction was first offered, as that they were the first of their class in the South to make provision for the work, and in the treatment of the subject are representative of the southern type.

From this brief sketch of the early history of pedagogical instruction in this country, it will be seen that the first efforts made by the universities for the professional training of teachers did not take place in the universities at all, but in their preparatory departments, or in separate normal attachments. The East had its academies, and later its high schools, from which students might go thoroughly prepared for college and university work; but in the West, with its fewer academies and less efficient high schools, preparatory departments became necessary adjuncts of the universities. These took the place of high schools for the few who desired collegiate training, for the others a common-school education sufficed. Under these circumstances, the most pressing need was for more efficient common school teachers. In the East, normal schools had already been established for this purpose (the training of elementary teachers), but in the West, no provision had yet been made. Universities responded to the demand by establishing normal departments. Later, when state normal schools were established, the university normal departments were either discontinued or modified to meet a new demand—the *professional training of secondary teachers*.

The modifications and growth in these normal departments reflect the changing conditions of education. At first, when there was but little need of high school teachers,

attention was given almost entirely to instruction in the elementary subjects, orthography, reading, writing, etc., few or no professional studies were offered; but later with the coming in of state normal schools, and with the rapidly increasing number of high schools, the preparatory departments of the universities were gradually discontinued and the normal departments were either dropped or changed to collegiate departments of pedagogy. This growth in pedagogical instruction is interesting in many ways. It shows how the universities have been influenced not only in modifying their courses of instruction, but also in adding new departments in order to meet the real wants of the teaching profession. It calls attention to the antagonism which arose between state normal schools and the normal departments of the universities when the latter seemed to be encroaching upon the field for which the former had been created.

Again it brings to light the intense opposition with which the new normal departments with their short cuts and cheapened degrees (B. Pe., etc.) were met by many of the older collegiate departments with their fixed curricula and mediæval methods; an opposition that was heightened because these normal departments furnished a loop-hole through which women were gaining entrance to the universities.

From the university normal school attachment of the most elementary sort to the present collegiate department of education, devoted entirely to the professional training of teachers and to the scientific study of educational problems, has been a simple process of growth and adaptation without definite or well defined ideals. This was quite different from the beginning of State normal schools in this country, as shown in a former chapter, and is also different from the second great movement in the universities for the professional training of secondary teachers, to be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

HISTORY OF THE SPECIAL MOVEMENT FOR THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

PREFACE

IN chapter two we gave a brief account of the early normal school movement in the United States, which had for its principal object the fitting of common school teachers. It was a movement that originated with the common people or those interested in the welfare of the masses. In chapter three we continued the history by giving a brief survey of the earliest university movement for the special preparation of teachers and its gradual growth into something higher. This, like the former, was a movement that originated with the people—from without rather than from within the universities. It started with no well-defined purpose other than the special training of teachers for all grades of public school work—elementary and secondary—though, at first, the greatest stress was placed upon the preparation of elementary teachers. As already indicated, the movement passed through a natural process of evolution, changing with the conditions of education until finally it became most concerned with the professional preparation of secondary teachers.

In this chapter we aim to give, in part, the history of the third great movement for the professional training of teachers. This movement, like the early normal school movement, began with a definite purpose—the *professional preparation of secondary teachers*,—an ideal which has continued to be its chief concern.

While the other movements came from the people through a desire for better schools, this one seems to have originated with scholars and professional men who, seeing the great waste and inefficiency of college graduates that enter the profession of teaching (mostly in high schools), desired to remedy the evil. It was a thoroughly scientific movement and has greatly benefited the teaching profession. Prior to the beginning of the movement, in the early eighties, many first-class high schools had been established and the number was rapidly increasing. These furnished a new and important field of activity for college graduates and the stronger normal school graduates; both, however, were deficient in preparation, the former through lack of professional knowledge, the latter through want of scholarship. Hence the need for the movement.

In presenting the subject it has seemed best to give an account of the history of the movement as it occurred in a number of the leading universities showing typical characteristics.

MICHIGAN UNI-
VERSITY, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Prior to the establishment of the state normal school at Ypsilanti in 1850, an effort had been made to have such a school opened in connection with the state university. In 1848 the matter went so far as to have a bill for normal instruction in the university pass the senate, but it failed to become a law. The desire for a normal department had come from without rather than from within the university, so when, two years later, the state normal school was established all parties were for the time satisfied.

Elizabeth M. Farrand in her *History of the University of Michigan* says: "Some instruction in Pedagogy had long been desired, when in 1879, Mr. W. H. Payne was appointed Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching. The estab-

lishment of this chair was followed by the offer of a "teacher's diploma" to any one receiving a Bachelor's or Master's degree, provided he had completed one of the courses in Pedagogy."¹

Three years before the establishment of the department of the science and the art of teaching there was offered a special teacher's diploma, referred to in the catalogue as follows; "Any member of the senior class, who pursues courses of study with reference to preparation for teaching, and who by special examinations shows such marked proficiency as qualifies him to give instruction, may receive a Special Diploma signed by the President and the Professors who had charge of the studies which he has taken with this object in view."² However, the real department of education, or of the "Science and the Art of Teaching," as it was named, was not opened until the fall of 1879, when Dr. W. H. Payne, who has since become so well and favorably known in educational circles, began his first course of lectures as professor in charge.

THE NATURE OF THE WORK The growth of the department is interesting on account of the strength of the man at the head and because it was the first department of its kind to be established in the United States.³ During the first year but two courses of study were offered, one for each semester, each representing two hours or exercises per week. The one given the first semester was entitled, "Practical; embracing school supervision, grading, courses of study, exam-

¹ *History of the University of Michigan*, by Elizabeth M. Farrand, p. 270.

² *University Calendar for 1875-76*, p. 46.

³ University normal departments which grew into independent departments of pedagogy, as in Iowa University, had been established earlier, but even in their modified forms their ideals seemed less specific and definite than that of the department of education in the University of Michigan.

inations, the art of instructing and governing, school architecture, school hygiene, school law, etc.”¹ The course consisted of a series of lectures by the professor on the above topics, and of assigned readings for the students. It was followed in the second semester by a course on educational theories and doctrines, entitled, “Historical, Philosophical and Critical; embracing history of education, the comparison and criticism of the systems in different countries, the outlines of educational science, the science of teaching, and a critical discussion of theories and methods.”²

The second year of the department the courses were repeated as above, though the number of exercises per week was increased to four. The manner of instruction was also changed from that of lectures to the study of a text, followed by recitations and lectures. Fitch’s “Lectures on Teaching” furnished the text for course 1, and Bain’s “Education as a Science” was used as the text for course 2. The following year two additional courses were offered, being rather expansions from courses 1 and 2. Course 3, given the first semester two hours per week, was on “School Supervision; embracing general school management, the art of grading and arranging courses of study, the conduct of institutes, etc.” Course 4, given the second semester, also a two hours’ study, was a seminary course, devoted for the first few years to the study of educational classics (Spencer’s “Education,” Rousseau’s “Emile,” Laurie’s “Life of Comenius”) and later to the study of special topics in the history and philosophy of education.

In 1882–83 (the fourth year of the department) course 5 was added, being a lecture course on the history of education, coming twice a week during the first semester. Three years later (1885–86), course 5 was extended to cover both semesters, thus forming courses 5 and 7; and course 6, de-

¹ *University Calendar for 1879–80.*

² *Ibid.*

voted to a comparative study of educational systems, was offered. As will be seen, all these courses are simply enlargements from the general courses 1 and 2, as offered the first year of the department. From this time forward but few changes have been made in the courses. The numbering of the courses has been slightly modified, the manner of instruction has varied, and in some cases the number of exercises per week has changed, but the body of the work has remained quite constant.

The next change in the curriculum occurred in 1894-95, when course 8, "The great exponents of educational thought and practice; a historical expository course for general students," was offered instead of the former seminary course now known as course 7, and henceforth omitted. The texts for course 8 were Davidson's *Aristotle and Ancient Educational Ideals*, West's *Alcuin* and Browning's *Educational Theories*.

In 1899-1900 two new courses were added to the department, course 9, "Child Study," two hours per week, first semester, text, Taylor's *The Study of the Child*; and course 10, "Social Phases of Education," one hour per week, first semester, text, Dutton's *Social Phases of Education*. The work of the department as it now stands is outlined in the calendar as follows:

FIRST SEMESTER	"1. Practical Pedagogy. The arts of teaching and governing; methods of instruction and general school-room practice; school hygiene; school law; lectures with reading. Hinsdale's <i>Teaching the Language-Arts</i> , and <i>How to Study and Teach History</i> . Four hours.
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3.	History of Education, Ancient and Mediæval. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: Compayre's <i>History of Pedagogy</i> . The subjects treated in the lectures are Oriental, Greek and Roman education, and the Rise and Early Development of Christian Schools. Three hours.
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5. School Supervision. General school management, the art of grading and arranging courses of study, the conduct of institutes, etc. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: Payne's Chapters on School Supervision. Three hours.

9. Child Study. Historical sketch; a discussion of the factors which influence intellectual development; methods of child study; physiology and psychology of childhood; study of special problems, such as the education of the nervous system, the hygiene of studies, motor ability, temperament, period of adolescence, children's drawings, interests, literature, fears, anger, lies, etc. The aim throughout is to treat each topic from a distinctly practical pedagogical point of view. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: Taylor's A Study of the Child. Two hours.

10. Social Phases of Education. A consideration of the school as a social factor in its relation to the child, to the home, to the church and to the State; also a discussion of the relation of education to vocation and to crime. Lectures and recitations. Text-book: Dutton's Social Phases of Education. One hour.

SECOND

SEMESTER

2. Theoretical and Critical Pedagogy. The principles underlying the arts of teaching and governing. Lectures and readings. Hinsdale's Studies in Education. Four hours.

4. History of Modern Education. Recitations and lectures. Text-book: Compayre's History of Pedagogy. The topics to be dealt with in the lectures are the movements of modern educational thought and practice. Three hours.

6. The Comparative Study of Educational Systems, Domestic and Foreign. Lectures and reading. Two hours.

7. History of Education in the United States. The course deals with the salient features of the subject from the earliest time, but particular attention is paid to the state of

education in the colonies, and to the common school revival in the first half of the present century. The recent university development is also described. Lectures and reading. Hinsdale's *Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States* and *Documents Illustrative of American Educational History*, are subjects of examination. One hour.¹

8. History of Educational Thought. The course deals with Greek and Roman antiquity and the Middle Ages, and with the principal of the great movements of thought in modern times. Lectures and reading. Davidson's *Aristotle and Ancient Educational Ideals*, West's *Alcuin and the Rise of Christian Schools*, and Browning's *Educational Theories*, are principal books of reference. One hour."²

Besides the special courses in pedagogics, other departments of the university have organized "Teachers' Courses." In 1880-81 there were at least four such courses offered by the departments of Latin, Greek, French and Physics, and other departments have since been added to the list.

TEACHER'S DIPLOMA	No special pedagogical degree is offered, but the work of the department is credited toward the regular university degrees in the same manner as that of other literary or scientific departments. A special teacher's diploma had been offered from the beginning of the department, but it was not until 1891 that the state legislature passed an act giving authority to the Faculty of the department of the science and art of teaching to issue certificates to holders of the university teacher's diploma, which certificates "shall serve as a legal certificate of quali-
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¹ Course 7, proposed for 1900-01, has been described heretofore as "The Study and Discussion of special topics in the History and Philosophy of Education, two hours per week."—G. W. A. L.

² *University Calendar 1899-1900*, pp. 81-2.

fications to teach in any of the schools of the State." The teacher's diploma is granted to such students only as have received from the university the degree of B. A., M. A., or Ph. D., and have met the following requirements:

1. "He must have taken courses 1 and 2 and some other three-hour course in the science and art of teaching."

2. "He must have taken such teacher's course or courses as may be prescribed in some one of the other departments of instruction that offer such courses."

3. "He must have shown such ability in his work as will, in the judgment of the professors interested, entitle him to receive such diploma, it being distinctly understood that work good enough to count towards fulfilling the requirements for a degree is not of necessity good enough to count for this purpose."¹

Dr. W. H. Payne continued at the head of the department until 1888, when he resigned to accept the Presidency of the Peabody Normal College, Nashville, Tenn., and was succeeded by the present incumbent, Professor B. A. Hinsdale, LL. D., ex-Superintendent of Public Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.²

THE AIM OF
THE
DEPARTMENT

The aims of the University in providing instruction in the Science and Art of Teaching are summarized in the University calendar as follows:

"1. To fit University students for the higher positions in the public school service.

"2. To promote the study of educational science.

¹ *University Calendar for 1899-1900*, p. 116.

² Professor B. A. Hinsdale died at Atlanta, Ga., November 29, 1900, and Dr. W. H. Payne accepted a call to return to the head of his old department in the University of Michigan.

"3. To teach the history of education and of educational systems and doctrines.

"4. To secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives and advantages of a profession.

"5. To give a more perfect unity to our State educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relations to the University."

The original aim of the department is shown even more clearly in an early history of the work, written by W. H. Payne in 1886, from which we add the following statements: "The report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for 1883 shows that there were at that time twenty-seven public schools, each employing fifteen or more teachers. Of these *twenty-seven* schools, *sixteen* had superintendents who were educated in the University, *six* were in charge of men who were educated in schools outside of the State, five were supervised by graduates of the State Normal School." . . .

"Under this condition of educational affairs the logic of the case is very simple and very conclusive. 'The function of the university,' says Mr. Fitch, 'is to teach and supply the world with its teachers.' In fact, the University of Michigan had for years been performing this function, but in an informal, unintentional way. Why not give the graduate who purposes to teach the opportunity to learn, at least, the theory of his art, in a more or less articulate manner? Why not teach in the University the cardinal doctrines of education, so that the entire public school system of the State may be affected through a process of downward diffusion?"

"In organizing the courses of instruction, the general aim was to offer opportunities for the study of education in its three main phases, the practical, the scientific and the historical."

DEPARTMENTS "It was never the intent to duplicate, in any
OF EDUCATION respect, the work of the State Normal School;
NOT INTENDED for, from the first, its field of operations has
TO DUPLICATE been predetermined by the limits of its aca-
NORMAL demic course of study. It is a school of sec-
SCHOOLS ondary instruction, and so the scholarship of its graduates is
simply on a par with the scholarship that is attained in high
schools of the first class. If there is any well-established
principle in school economy it is this: the scholarship of the
teacher should be considerably broader than the scholarship
of his most advanced pupils. This law at once determines,
on *a priori* grounds, the status of normal schools with re-
spect to the supply of teachers, and the historical confirma-
tion of this law is seen in the facts above recited, and from
which it appears that, after a prosperous career of more than
thirty years, there were but five schools in the State em-
ploying fifteen or more teachers that were under the super-
vision of graduates from the State Normal School, while
sixteen such schools were supervised by men who had their
training in this university. It is thus seen that the upper
limit of what we may call the normal field, and the lower
limit of the university field, fall somewhat within the high
school grade of the public school system. In providing
for the professional study of education in the University,
there was never a thought of making the slightest encroach-
ment on the actual and historical territory of the Normal
School; and during the last seven years there has been no
evidence that the line defining the two fields has been sen-
sibly disturbed." . . . "In the education of teachers, then,
the university and the normal school have independent
spheres of activity; or, if there is any common ground, it is
a narrow tract within the high school grade that has always
been common ground and is doubtless destined always to
remain so."¹

¹ *Contributions to the Science of Education*, by W. H. Payne, pp. 336 ff.

NOT FOR THE
TRAINING OF
ELEMENTARY
TEACHERS

It will be seen from the above that the object of the department was not to train elementary teachers, which would have been to encroach upon the ground of the normal school; but the object as expressed and carried out was to train teachers for high schools and for supervision. Dr. Payne does not believe that the academic knowledge of normal graduates was sufficient to prepare them for the higher positions in public school teaching. In another connection he says: "As at present constituted, the normal schools are not fitted to dispense the professional education needed by head masters, principals, superintendents, or even first assistants in high schools."¹

The quotation which Dr. Payne gives from the report of the State Superintendent for 1883, is certainly an unusually favorable one for college graduates. Most of the data that the writer has been able to find bearing on the subject, indicates that, prior to the establishment of chairs of pedagogy in the universities, the majority of the more responsible positions in the public school service went to normal school graduates in preference to college graduates. In Nebraska it has been within the last six years that university graduates have been given preference over normal school graduates for positions in high schools and as principals and superintendents.

Michigan was one of the early states to establish high schools. Superintendent Mayhew, in his report for 1848, thus mentions these schools: "This class of institutions, which may be made to constitute the connecting link between the ordinary common school and the State University, is fast gaining upon the confidence of the people. Some of them have already attained a standing rarely

¹ *Contribution to the Science of Education*, by W. H. Payne, p. 307.

equaled by the academical institutions of older states."¹ Furthermore, the State Normal School, as established in 1850, was for the purpose of preparing common school teachers, and it did not change from this purpose until 1878, when it enlarged its curriculum and endeavored to prepare teachers for all grades of public school service. "It is believed that the various courses prescribed will, when thoroughly mastered, fit young gentlemen and ladies for positions as assistants, principals and superintendents in all classes of the public schools."² It is probably due in part to the early establishment of high schools and the late enlargement of the State Normal School to make provision for such teachers, that, in the above comparison, so many more college graduates were found in responsible positions.

NO PRACTICE
TEACHING No provision has been made in the University for practice teaching. In speaking on this point, Dr. Payne says: "Considering the particular educational problem I have been set to solve, I could not well have a practice school if I would; and from all the light that comes to me from observation and reflection, I would not have such an adjunct to my work if I could."³

We have devoted much more space to the history of the professional training of teachers in the University of Michigan than was our first intent, and probably more space than will be necessary to give to any other institution. The University of Michigan being the first among the institutions of higher education to establish a department of education for the distinct purpose of the professional preparation of secondary teachers; and the work of the department being so well planned and executed, and at the same time so characteristic of the work as offered by other departments of edu-

¹ *Education in Michigan*, by W. L. Smith, p. 49.

² *Ibid.*, p. 102.

³ *Contributions to the Science of Education*, p. 340.

cation, established later, we have felt warranted in giving to the subject this extra space.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
 Following the lead of the University of Michigan, Johns Hopkins University for a short time offered courses in psychology and education.

In 1881-82 G. Stanley Hall, Ph. D., was called as lecturer in Psychology. Two years later (1883-84) he was made professor of Psychology and Pedagogics, but aside from the university announcement that instruction was provided in Pedagogics, there is no further mention of the work until the year 1884-85. It was then stated under the graduate courses in Psychology and Education that "Lectures are also given during the first year on the History of Education, including the ancient and modern theories, the development of ancient and modern school systems, learned societies, technical schools, methods in each department, school legislation in different countries, etc."¹ It is further stated that, "The second year includes short and special courses of lectures on select topics, and the prosecution of original studies according to a systematic plan announced at the beginning of each year. Readings and discussions will be encouraged, with a secondary view to the educational significance of such work."²

The following year (1885-86) the work of the department is described as follows: "The Educational Course includes one year devoted to the history of education, beginning with Greece and making connection with Course I (Historical Course in Psychology), so that the two in a measure supplement each other. The second year is devoted to present educational problems, including legislation, administration, technology, defectives, and the applications of

¹ *Annual Report*, 1884-85, p. 97.

² *Ibid.*, p. 98.

ethical and psychological principles to educational questions, etc. A descriptive bibliography just issued will serve in a measure as a syllabus of this course, which is designed not only for those intending to devote themselves to school supervision, but for those in all departments intending to teach specialties in colleges, in technical or high schools."¹

For the next year Dr. Hall had planned for a triennial course in education covering the three years of graduate study. The lectures of the first year being historical, those of the second, devoted to problems of primary and intermediate education, and those of the third, to special chapters in the field of higher education. But he says: "This Course does not lead to a degree. Those who desire to study education professionally, are advised to give their energy to psychology which is its chief scientific basis, pedagogy being a field of applied psychology."² Dr. Hall, however, resigned in 1886, to accept the Presidency of Clark University, Worcester, Mass. The department of Psychology and Pedagogics in Johns Hopkins University was then discontinued and has not since been reorganized. This was a case in which the department and courses were created to fit the man.

What the department of psychology and pedagogy might have become had Dr. G. Stanley Hall remained at its head can only be conjectured. No direct statement outlining the aim of the work in pedagogics seems to have been made; but judging from the nature of the courses as indicated in the catalogues one would infer that the work was undertaken primarily for the sake of culture and because the field offered many new and practical problems for investigation. It was an outcropping of the student spirit, probably not so much with the thought of training young men for teaching, as that of teaching them

AIM OF THE DE-
PARTMENT

¹ *Catalogue of 1885-86*, p. 102.

² *Annual Catalogue, 1887-88*, p. 88.

how to study, which after all is the first step toward real teaching. The courses in education were offered as graduate studies, which placed them beyond the reach of elementary teachers as well as of most high school teachers.

Dr. Hall laid chief stress upon psychology, a subject which he holds to be the true scientific basis of pedagogy. The courses in education were inserted between courses in psychology, philosophy, logic and ethics; all as the work of a single professor.

Aside from the courses in the history of education, the work was devoted principally to the study of special problems, such as defectives, criminology, school legislation, administration, etc. For advanced students who were properly prepared for investigation and research the lectures must have proved exceedingly interesting and beneficial.

CORNELL UNI-
VERSITY, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

In 1886 Cornell University established a department of education in connection with the Sage School of Philosophy, and appointed S. R. Williams, Ph. D., Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching. Prior to his appointment to the department of education Dr. Williams had been professor of "General and Economic Geology" in Cornell University.

REASONS FOR
ESTABLISHING
THE DE-
PARTMENT

The report of the committee recommending the establishment of the department is in part as follows: "We are of the opinion that great service would be rendered to the university by the establishment of a chair of the science and art of teaching. As this is in some sense a state as well as a national university, it seems peculiarly desirable that it should exert a wholesome and elevating influence upon all the grades of schools with which it comes in contact. Such an influence would be greatly strengthened by the establishment of the professorship contemplated. There are, moreover, a very

considerable number of young men and young women in the University who desire to fit themselves for the career of a teacher."¹ The above statement showing the reasons for establishing the department, is supplemented by the following expression of the aim and nature of the department repeated for many years in the annual register: "Believing that a need exists for more thoroughly equipped teachers in our higher educational institutions, the University has made provisions for supplying this want, both by the establishment of a professorship of the science and art of teaching, and by such additions to some of the chief lines of university study as seem best adapted to fit students to teach them successfully. The lectures of the Professor of Teaching include courses on the general theory of education, its aim, its psychological conditions, and its means; on the nature and methods of instruction fitted for different ages and destinations; on the organization and management of schools, including an account of the modes of organization which prevail in our own and other countries, with their tendencies and results; and on the history of education, with a discussion of the theories of famous writers on education. The lectures are supplemented by conferences for the discussion of educational topics, for the special investigation of important educational questions, and for reports on visits to schools."

"Arrangements have also been made in several departments of the University, by special classes and by seminaries, to give extended instruction to those who intend to teach, in the best methods of presenting the branches of study to which these departments are devoted."²

The arrangement and nature of the courses,
NATURE OF THE while not so extensive, remind one of the work
WORK offered in the University of Michigan. In

¹ *University Records*, 1886.

² *University Register*, 1887-88, pp. 59, 60.

fact Professor Williams says: "The courses that have been offered during the past two years, were arranged after a careful study of the work done in institutions similar to our own, viz., in the Universities of Michigan and Iowa, in the University of Edinburgh, and in the teachers' syndicate of Cambridge University."¹

The eight courses arranged for the first year, each covering a single term (one-third of the school year), were, for the second and following years, combined into three courses each continuing throughout the year. The nature of these courses is quite fully indicated in the quotation given above. Course 1, occupying three hours per week throughout the year, was a lecture course on the theory and practice of Education, of a very general nature; characterized as follows: "1. The science of education. Philosophic basis; aims; methods; means. School instruction: application of methods to various branches; recitations; art of questioning and examining; illustration and exposition. Organization and management of schools: classification; courses of study; supervision; school buildings and appliances; school hygiene; school economy, etc." Course 2 was a seminary course of one hour per week, devoted to discussions and essays on topics connected with Course 1. Course 3 was a two-hour course on the "History of education in various ages and countries. Comparative education; theories of writers on education, eminent educators, etc.," given the last two terms of the year.

Beginning with the academic year 1888-89, there was a fourth course of one-hour added, entitled, "pedagogic Seminary devoted to a study of Waitz's *Allgemeine Pädagogik*," which was changed in 1891-92 to read "Waitz's *Allemeine Pädagogik*," or "Clemens Nohl's *Pädagogik für höhere Lehranstalten*." This course, though intended only for advanced

¹ *Annual Report of the President of Cornell University for 1887-88*, p. 72.

students, did not prove popular, and had to be omitted on different occasions for want of students.

In 1893-94 Course One was divided into two courses: "The Institutes of Education," in which education was treated "as to its aims, its principles and its means from the standpoint of the physical, intellectual and moral nature of man," a three-hour lecture course continuing through the year, and a one-hour course on school supervision, offered during the third term of the year. These courses continued with but little modification until 1898-99, when Dr. Williams became professor emeritus, and Chas. DeGarmo, Ph. D., President of Swarthmore College, was appointed professor of the science and art of education.

Dr. DeGarmo continued the course in the history of education, established a two-hour seminary course in the science and art of education, a three-hour course in psychologic foundations of education, and arranged a one-hour lecture course on the teaching of high school subjects given by the professors of the different departments having these subjects in charge. These courses continue in about the same form to-day.

TEACHERS' University Teachers' Certificates were author-
CERTIFICATES ized soon after the establishment of the department, on the following conditions: "Certificates of scholarly fitness to teach will, upon application on or before June 1st, be given to such graduates of the academic department as have successfully pursued the first course on the science and art of teaching, or that portion of it which relates to the general theory of education, together with the course on the history of education, and have besides attained marked proficiency in at least five hours of advanced work for two years, in each subject for which the teachers' certificate is given, in such subjects as offer five or more hours of such work." ¹

¹ *University Register*, 1899-1900, p. 57.

The University Teachers' Certificate when approved by the state superintendent becomes a valid life license to teach in the public high schools of the state, unless revoked by the same authority for cause.

Besides the instruction that is given by the departments of philosophy and of education for the professional training of teachers, several other departments in the academic college, Greek, Latin and English, offer "teachers' training courses" in the subjects with which they are especially concerned. The instruction from the beginning has been with the thought of training secondary rather than elementary teachers.

No special pedagogical degree is offered and no provision is made for practice teaching.

THE OHIO
UNIVERSITY,
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

The Ohio University, situated at Athens, established a chair of pedagogy in 1886-87, and appointed John P. Gordy, Ph. D., Professor of Psychology and Pedagogics. For several years previous there had been normal classes formed, in connection with the spring and fall terms, for the benefit of country teachers. The normal instruction was carried on in the preparatory department, and with the exception of lectures on the "principles and duties of school work," was purely academic.

In the beginning of the department, psychology, ethics and philosophy seem to have been considered subordinate to pedagogy. At least it is stated: "For the present psychology, ethics and the history of philosophy will be regarded as belonging to this department (pedagogics)."¹

In 1891-92, Professor Gordy's title was changed to Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogics, and the department instead of "Pedagogics" was called the "Department of Pedagogics and Philosophy."

¹ *Catalogue for 1887-88*, p. 27.

NATURE OF THE
WORK

The pedagogical instruction that was offered at the beginning of the department was as follows: Psychology (educational), History of Education, and Methods. These in addition to the classical course comprised what was known as the "Pedagogical Course," which led to the degree of bachelor of Pedagogy (B. Ped.). The courses of instruction remain practically the same until 1892-93 when the following courses were substituted: "Education from a National Standpoint (Educa. Psych.), Fouillee's, three hours per week; History of Education, Davidson's Greek Education, four hours per week; Science of Education (Methods), Laurie's Institutes of Education (time not given); and Seminary (City School Systems) once every two weeks."¹

In June, 1896, Professor Gordy resigned to become Professor of Pedagogy in the Ohio State University at Columbus, and Arthur Allin, Ph. D., was appointed to the vacancy in the Ohio University as professor of Psychology and Pedagogy, and Clyde Brown, Ph. B., was made instructor in Philosophy and Pedagogy. Dr. Allin arranged the following courses of instruction: I, Pedagogical values (Spencer's Education); II, History of Education; III, Science of Education; IV, Educational Systems; and V, Seminary (City school systems). The following year (1897-98) Professor Allin resigned to accept a similar position in the University of Colorado, and Mr. Brown was made associate Professor of Pedagogy. A year later (1898-99) he became Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, the title of the department and the courses of instruction continuing the same.

AIM OF THE
DEPARTMENT

From the beginning to the close of Dr. Gordy's administration the following statement is made as to the purpose of the department: "It is the aim of this department to prepare students for the

¹ *Catalogue for 1892-93*, p. 49.

profession of teaching. Such preparation requires (1) a vivid conception of the true end of education; (2) a knowledge of, and practical acquaintance with, the right method to be used in attaining that end; (3) a knowledge of the principles upon which those methods are based; (4) a true conception of educational values; (5) a broad range of scholarship and general culture. Every opportunity is improved to impress upon students the fact that the object of education is not primarily the communication of knowledge, but the training of faculty, and these faculties not merely or chiefly the intellectual, but the emotive, the volitional, and the moral."¹

THE OHIO STATE
UNIVERSITY

The Ohio University, considered above, is one of the oldest of state institutions, dating back to 1801. It received as an endowment the two townships, set aside by an act of the general government in 1787, for the support of a university. Since then it has received but little additional support from the state, and is maintained principally through its endowment and tuition fees.

The Ohio State University was opened first in 1873 as the State Agricultural and Mechanical College, receiving for an endowment the large appropriation of land made by the general government in 1862 for the "endowment, support and maintenance" of state agricultural colleges. Five years later, by an act of the state legislature, the institution was enlarged, and the name changed to that of "The Ohio State University." Since that time the University has received many liberal appropriations from the state and greatly overshadows the other state schools.

DEPARTMENT
OF PEDAGOGY

In 1896-97, the Ohio State University established a "Department of Pedagogy," and appointed Dr. J. P. Gordy professor in charge.

¹ *Catalogue for 1887-88*, p. 26.

Two years later (1898-99), the name of the department was changed to that of the "Department of Education," and Dr. Gordy's title was changed to read "Professor of Education."

As at first organized, the work of the department did not differ materially from that above described in the Ohio University, being probably a little more advanced and more theoretical. It opened with the following courses of instruction: "Elementary and Advanced Courses in Educational Psychology; History of Education; Herbartian Pedagogy; Philosophy of Education (Rosenkranz's); Institutes of Education (Laurie's). At the present time (1901), the courses of instruction are as follows: 1. Educational Psychology, three times a week, three terms; 2. Child Study, four times a week, three terms; 3. History of Education, four times a week, three terms; 4. Methods of Research, twice a week, three terms; 5. Science of Education, four times a week, three terms; 6. Modern Educational Systems, twice a week, three terms; 7. A Study of Scientific Method, twice a week, three terms; 8. The Recitation, twice a week, three terms; 9. Seminar, twice a week, three terms."

AIM OF THE
DEPARTMENT

Regarding the aim in the course in education it is said: "The postulate that underlies the course in education is, that there are two lines along which the intending teacher—with a view to his professional interest—should study: (1) the subject he teaches, and (2) the history and science of education and educational psychology. The first point will probably not be challenged by any intelligent person. No one now supposes that a teacher can teach what he does not know.

"But there are still many thoughtful people who suppose that teachers are born, not made; that if a man has the natural qualifications of a teacher he can teach, otherwise not, and that is the end of it. The principle underlying this course takes sharp issue with this opinion. It assumes that

the intending teacher may by study acquire clearer ideas of the end of education, and of sound educational methods. It assumes that the practitioner of the art of education may, like the practitioners of other arts, do something to put himself in a position in which he will be able to do his work from the standpoint of the experience of the best teachers of the world."¹

CLARK UNI-
VERSITY, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Clark University, as opened in 1889, was limited to five departments: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Psychology. At the opening of the Chicago University a few years later the chemistry professors were called in a body to the new institution, and Clark University has since confined its strength to the four remaining departments, as enumerated above. This limited scope of instruction should be kept in mind when considering the nature of the work offered for the professional training of teachers.

Clark University, properly speaking, is distinctly a Graduate School of somewhat limited scope.² The main object for which it was established was one of research and investigation—a spirit to which it has ever remained true.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall was called from the chair of psychology and pedagogics in Johns Hopkins University to the Presidency early in 1888, but occupied the year in travel and study abroad. On his return President Hall assumed the duties of Professor of Psychology and Education, a position which he still retains. In 1889, Dr. W. H. Burnham was appointed Docent in Pedagogy and sent to Europe to study educational institutions and methods.

¹ *University Catalogue for 1901-02.*

² Since the death of the founder of Clark University, Hon. Jonas G. Clark (1900), owing to a desire as expressed in his will, an undergraduate department or college has been established and organized (1902) with Carroll D. Wright as president.

NATURE OF
THE WORK

The first courses in education were offered in 1890-91, and consisted of two lectures, each one hour per week; the one by Dr. Burnham on "Pedagogical principles, topics in the history of education, and present problems in higher and lower education in this country and in Europe," the other by Dr. Hall upon "Special institutions and educational systems." From this time forth Dr. Hall has devoted at least one hour per week to lectures on special problems of education. These lectures, like the related ones given by Dr. Hall on psychology, usually come fresh from the laboratory and are always stimulating and helpful.

The following year (1891-2) Dr. Burnham offered a one-hour lecture course on "School Hygiene and Physical Education," treating the subject comparatively and from the standpoint of the hygiene of the nervous system. This was followed in turn, by a course on the psychology of reading, and the methods of teaching reading, mathematics, and geography, treated historically and comparatively. During these years the educational seminary was established, a weekly meeting of students devoted to the study and discussion of special problems of research in education. Most of the articles found in the "Pedagogical Seminary," published at Clark University, are the results of studies which have been reported and discussed first in this educational seminary conducted by Dr. Burnham.

In 1892-93 Dr. Burnham became instructor, and in 1900-01 assistant professor of pedagogy. From the first he has devoted about two hours per week to lectures on special topics of education, which are nearly always the immediate results of investigations that later find currency in educational publications. Looked at from the standpoint of the last ten years these lectures have covered a wide range, but their scope in any one year has been unusu-

ally limited. Dr. Hall's work in psychology (philosophy) is generally planned on a three-year basis, courses repeating themselves triennially, but if any such sequence is arranged for the department of pedagogy the writer has failed to discover it. A few courses have been repeated in the past ten years but without any seeming regularity. The principal topics that have been considered during these years are as follows: 1. Child Study, Educational Psychology, School Hygiene; 2. Principles of Education, History of Education and Reforms, Methods, devices, apparatus; 3. Organization of Schools in Different Countries, Typical Schools and Special Foundations, Motor Education, including manual training and physical education, Moral Education, Ideals. No observation and practice-teaching is provided, and the work as planned is intended only for advanced students who are interested in, and capable of pursuing with profit, original problems of research and investigation.

The department of pedagogy still continues, as established in 1893, a sub-department of psychology. In the treatment of the subject a close relation is maintained between psychology and anthropology on the one hand and pedagogy on the other, the former furnishing the principles and facts upon which the latter is based. Pedagogy may be taken as a minor, but not as a major, for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The instruction has been devoted more to the scientific and theoretical phases of the subject than to the practical and applied.

AIM OF THE
DEPARTMENT

“The aim of the department is twofold: first, to give instruction and training to those who are preparing to be professors of pedagogy, superintendents, or teachers in higher institutions; second, to make scientific contributions to education. These two ends are so closely related that the pursuit of one involves much of the work required for the other also.”

"Assuming that a student has adequate preparation, three things are essential for higher pedagogical training; first, a general knowledge of the organization of education in different countries and of literature in the field of education, including the history of education, psychology in its relation to education, and school hygiene; second, actual experience in teaching, together with observation of good teaching, and some direct study of educational institutions of different character and grade; third, some experience in independent research, involving not only the thorough study of all authorities upon a subject, and of all work that has been done in the same field in different countries, but also original investigation leading to a scientific contribution."

"In this University the study of educational literature, by lectures and independent reading, and the investigation of some problem, are usually carried on simultaneously; but practical experience in teaching must be gained before or after the University course." "But, while at present the University has no practice school, as a matter of fact, most of those who have been members of the educational department have had experience in teaching before coming to the University; and the lack of direct connection with the schools is in part supplied by visits to educational institutions."¹

One who is unfamiliar with the work at Clark University may be surprised at the few hours per week devoted to lectures, but the student who is engaged in an investigation of some new problem, is not desirous of dropping his work every few hours to listen to lectures on some unrelated topic, the remembrance of which is made necessary as preparation for a final examination. Such instruction may be weak when considered as a formative process, but it certainly furnishes the best means for individual development. Besides,

¹ Dr. Burnham, in *Clark University Decennial Celebration*, 1898-99, pp. 162-3.

the few lectures that are offered by the instructors are usually the results of the original investigations of the instructors, in progress at the time, and cover a vital phase of the topic or topics under investigation by the students. Such work would hardly be suitable for undergraduate students, but for graduates who have naturally passed the formative period it seems to the writer to be most appropriate.

HARVARD UNI-
VERSITY, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION.
SPECIAL
COURSES FOR
TEACHERS.

As early as 1871, there were special courses for teachers established in connection with the Lawrence Scientific School. There was no examination required for admission to the "Teachers' Course," which was intended especially for teachers of the sciences, or students looking toward that profession.

Many similar courses have been offered during the summer sessions for the benefit of teachers who could not attend during the school year. In fact, the summer courses at Harvard have always been adapted, in the main, "to the needs of teachers and to those who intend to be teachers." The instruction has been for the most part academic, but some attention has been given to the best methods of teaching the subjects in question.

The catalogue for 1880, p. 147, makes mention of these courses as follows: "The school also offers facilities to teachers, and to persons preparing to be teachers, who desire to qualify themselves in the modern methods of teaching science by observation and experiment. A one-year's course of study, adapted to this purpose, may be selected from the elements of Natural History, Chemistry and Physics, including any of the following subjects: Physical Geography and Elementary Geology; General Chemistry and Quantitative Analysis; Mineralogy; Physics; Botany; Comparative Anatomy and Physiology; Zoölogy.

"This Course is flexible and comprehensive; the instruction is mainly given in the laboratories and museums of the University, and is of the most practical character, every student being taught to make experiments and study specimens."

"Special Courses in Botany, Chemistry and Geology are given during the vacation to teachers and others who are unable to attend during term time."¹

Special Courses for teachers, not only in the Scientific School but in the Literary Department as well, have been an important feature of the university instruction ever since. To these courses have since been added instruction in psychology and pedagogy. In the catalogue of 1897-98, under the head "Science for Teachers," is found the following: "This programme is intended for men who wish to qualify themselves to teach science in secondary schools, or to become supervisors of science teaching in elementary schools. It prescribes courses in Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoölogy, Geology and Physical Geography, Psychology, the General Principles of Education, the History of Education, the Organization and Management of Schools and Classes, and Methods of teaching Science in Elementary and Secondary Schools, and offers a voluntary summer course in Physical Training."² This Course covers four years and leads to "the degree of Bachelor of Science in Science for Teachers."

In 1891-92 Paul H. Hanus, B. S., was appointed "Assistant Professor in the History and the Art of Teaching," and the new department of education was established, and still remains, as a sub-department of philosophy.

NATURE OF
THE WORK

During the first year Professor Hanus offered three courses: a two-hour course on "The History of Teaching and of Educational Theories;"

¹ *Catalogue for 1880-81*, p. 148.

² *Catalogue for 1897-98*, p. 418.

a one hour course on "The Theory of Teaching, the psychological basis of methods, Critical examination of educational doctrines," and a two-hour course on "The Art of Teaching, school-room practice, management, supervision, government and organization of public schools and academies, including visits to the public schools of Cambridge and vicinity."

The following year the department offered four courses as follows: 1. The history of educational theories and practices, two hours a week; 2. Introduction to educational theory, discussion of educational principles, one hour a week; 3. Organization and management of public schools and academies, supervision, courses of study, and instruction, two hours a week; and 4. Pedagogical seminary, aims, organization, equipment, and methods of secondary education. From this time forward these courses have remained quite constant.

Two years later (1894-95) a fifth course was given by the department on "Methods of Teaching Sciences in elementary and secondary schools," one hour per week. In the year 1896-97 and following, this course has alternated annually with a course on "Methods of Teaching Latin, Greek, English, German, French, and History, in Elementary and Secondary Schools," consisting of about ten exercises on each subject. The instruction in the courses on Methods of Teaching is given by Professor Hanus, college professors, and teachers from nearby secondary schools.

In the establishment of the department of education, "the corporation wished to make a modest beginning of systematic instruction in the history and art of teaching." The instruction is planned for juniors, seniors, and graduates. It does not cover a wide scope, but it is intended to be thoroughly practical and adapted to the immediate professional requirements of secondary teachers. It is

probable that the department will soon be enlarged and made co-ordinate with philosophy and other collegiate departments. The popularity of Harvard University is due in large part to its manifest interest in the professional training of teachers.

COLUMBIA UNI-
VERSITY, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Instead of a mere department of education, Columbia University has "Teachers College" which is the most richly endowed and thoroughly equipped School of Education in the country. The purposes of this paper will permit only the briefest outline of its history.

In 1889-90, Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler was promoted from the position of Tutor in Philosophy to that of "Adjunct Professor of Philosophy and Lecturer on the History and Institutes of Education." During this year under the title of "Pedagogics" is found the following statement: "Lectures are given to the senior class one hour weekly throughout the year on the history of educational theories. This course includes a review and analysis of the most celebrated writings on education from Plato's Republic to Herbert Spencer's Education."¹

NATURE OF
THE WORK

Dr. Butler was a young man of energy and scholarly attainments and his scholastic career had been a path of rapid promotion. Fellow from 1882 to 1885 he had become Professor of philosophy, ethics, and psychology, and lecturer on the history and institutes of education, 1890, and Dean of the University Faculty of Philosophy, 1891.² In 1890-91 he gave two one-hour

¹ *Columbia University Hand-book of Information*, 1889-90, p. 40.

² Nicholas Murray Butler (Educ.), A. M., 1883, Ph. D., 1884; Fellow Col. Coll., 1882-85; Asst. in Philos., 1885-86; Acting Prof. of Philos., 1886-87; Tutor in Philos., 1887-89; Adj. Prof. of Philos., 1889-90; Prof. of Philos., Ethics and Psychol., and lecturer on History and Institutes of Educ., 1890-; Prest. Teachers' Coll., N. Y., 1887-91; Member N. J. State Bd. of Educ., 1888-; Prest. N. J. Coun-

per week lecture courses in education, extending throughout the year; one on the science of education, the other on the history of education. The following year he gave a one-hour course on "Systematic Pedagogics" and devoted two hours weekly to a Pedagogical Seminary. In 1892-93 but one course was offered in education; a one-hour per week lecture course on "The History of Educational Theories and Institutions." Since this time Dr. Butler has usually offered about three lecture courses in education annually, each covering one hour per week: The History of Educational Theories and Institutions; Educational Seminary; and Principles of Education; including Psychology of Childhood, Didactics, the Ethical and Religious Elements in Education. The latter is usually considered to be one of Dr. Butler's strongest courses. Of late years this course represents two hours per week, the first course mentioned above being omitted.

Having early conceived the idea of a great school of education in connection with Columbia University, Dr. Butler was destined, in his organization and direction of Teachers College, to do more for practical education and the professional training of teachers than is indicated from this brief account of his lectures on education.

TEACHERS
COLLEGE,
COLUMBIA
UNIVERSITY

Teachers College may be said to have originated in a philanthropic movement started in 1880 to promote domestic arts and industrial education among the laboring classes. The aim of the movement was soon enlarged to include the introduction of industrial education—cooking, sewing, manual training, etc.—into the field of general education, believing thereby to strengthen education by giving new life and meaning to the subjects already studied.

cil Educ., 1890-91; Dean Univ. Faculty of Philos., 1890-; Prest. Paterson, N. J., Commrs. of Pub. Instr., 1892-93; Memb. Nat. Council Educa., 1891-; Editor Educa. Rev., 1890-; Prest. Nat. Teachers' Assn., 1894.—*Gen. Cat. Columbia Univ.*, 1754-1894, p. 147.

ORIGINATED TO
SUPPLY THE
NEED FOR
INDUSTRIAL
TEACHERS

In order to successfully carry forward this work, teachers were needed, and their proper training became a matter of immediate necessity. Skilled mechanics might prove very inefficient teachers of children in manual training, especially when the aim was not to make craftsmen, but rather, broad-minded and intelligent citizens. Neither could the ordinary teacher be relied upon to carry forward this work, since he lacked the knowledge and experience necessary to conduct and give meaning to the manual training laboratory.

In order to make provision for teachers, found necessary to the success of the movement, the Industrial Education Association (the name by which the society was now known) established classes for the training of teachers. Dr. Butler was appointed President of the Association (1886-91) and assigned the duty of organizing a training college for teachers, which at first was intended to represent only one phase of the work, but which later came to absorb the whole interest and attention of the society.

As already noted, Dr. Butler was intent on having a school of education established at Columbia University. In an article on "The Beginnings of Teachers College," he says: "The idea which led to the foundation and development of Teachers College was suggested by reading the remarkable discussions of education as a subject of university study which were contained in the annual reports of President Barnard for 1881 and 1882."¹

The remark of President Barnard that attracted special attention was as follows: "Education is nowhere treated as a science, and nowhere is there an attempt to expound its true philosophy."

Dr. Butler was of the opinion that the time was ripe to

¹ *Columbia University Quarterly*, 1899.

begin the systematic exposition of education on a high plane in the University, but says: "After a full conference with President Barnard, the opinion was arrived at, chiefly at his instance, that it would probably be easier to build up a teachers' college outside of the University, and to bring it later into organic relations with the University, than to undertake at that time its establishment under the control and at the expense of the Trustees. By a fortunate circumstance, the results of which have been almost too happy to attribute wholly to chance, the Industrial Educational Association served as the occasion for the realization of the ideal of a teachers' college on a university basis."¹

Teachers College, founded in 1888, began its organization with the following departments: History and Institutes of Education; Methods of Instruction; Mechanical Drawing and Woodworking; Industrial Arts; Domestic Economy; Kindergarten Methods, and Natural Science. The school was backed by a number of wealthy men and women who were deeply interested in its prosperity, and its growth was consequently rapid. The college course as first arranged occupied but two years and led to a teacher's diploma. The requirements for admission were scarcely equal to those of a good high school.

CHANGE OF
IDEAL

At first the chief aim of the Industrial Education Association was the advancement of domestic science and industrial training among the masses, but it was not long before the professional preparation of teachers for all grades of public school-work became the overshadowing interest. Industrial training, however, continued to remain one of the most prominent and influential features of the instruction.

A most fortunate incident for the future of the College occurred in 1892 when the society found it necessary to en-

¹ *Columbia University Quarterly*, 1899.

large its quarters. The committee appointed to look up a site selected twenty lots (since increased to thirty-one) at Morningside Heights, one of the most beautiful and healthful parts of New York city. The money for the land was obtained through Mr. George W. Vanderbilt, who purchased the property at \$100,000 cash and donated it to Teachers College. Two days later it became known that the old Bloomingdale property, which lies just across 120th street to the south had been purchased for the new site of Columbia University; so without anticipating it, Teachers College was to come under the immediate shadow of a great university.

In its enlarged quarters the school was able to greatly strengthen its curricula and to increase its requirements both for entrance and for graduation.

In 1893-94 Teachers College became affiliated with Columbia University, certain courses of the former being "accepted by Columbia as counting toward the Columbia College degrees."¹

Since 1898 Teachers College has become incorporated as a real part of Columbia University, exchanging its President for a Dean but retaining its separate Board of Trustees. It is now in fact the "professional school of Columbia University for the study of education and the training of teachers." The Teachers College of Columbia University has thus become a great school of education which, besides its four years of undergraduate academic courses, and its one to three years of graduate professional courses, "maintains two schools of observation and practice; one, the Horace Mann School, the other known as the Experimental School. The Horace Mann School comprises three departments—a kindergarten for children of three to six years of age, an

¹ Historical Sketch of Teachers College, by ex-Pres. W. L. Hervey, *Teachers College Record*, i, 33.

elementary school of eight grades, and a high school of four grades. The Experimental School consists of a kindergarten, elementary school and special classes in sewing, cooking and manual training. Each department of the Horace Mann School is in charge of a principal, who ranks with directors of departments in the College. The Experimental School is under the immediate supervision of the College Professor of the Theory and Practice of Teaching. Both schools are under the general direction of a Superintendent of Schools, who is also the College Professor of School Administration."¹

The Horace Mann School, which maintains all grades from the kindergarten to the college, is a pay school, the other is free. These schools furnish the professional laboratory of Teachers College.

AIM OF TEACHERS COLLEGE The aim of the School is thus set forth in the current calendar: "The purpose of Teachers College is to afford opportunity, both theoretical and practical, for the training of teachers of both sexes for kindergartens, elementary and secondary schools, of principals, supervisors and superintendents of schools, and of specialists in various branches of school work, including normal schools and colleges." As at present conducted it impresses one as an unusually *high grade normal*. It is a school of instruction and of methods rather than one of research and investigation, formative rather than creative. But its professors, selected primarily because of their teaching ability and scholastic attainments, are young and vigorous, and the future may tell a different story.

In its entirety Teachers College is 1st, a large public school representing all grades from the kindergarten to the university; 2d, a great industrial school; 3d, an academic college, though at present, in order not to duplicate courses in Columbia University, but few collegiate courses are offered;

¹ *Teachers' College Announcement*, 1901-02, p. 16.

4th, a thoroughly equipped and efficient school of education for the professional training of teachers. A list of the professors in the professional school alone will indicate the scope of the work. They are (not including the professors of special methods): Jas. E. Russell, Ph. D., Dean, and History of Education; Nicholas Murray Butler, LL. D., Principles of Education; Frank M. McMurry, Ph. D., Theory and Practice of Teaching; Samuel T. Dutton, A. M., School Administration; Jas. McK. Cattell, Ph. D., Psychology; Paul Monroe, Ph. D., History of Education; Edward L. Thorndike, Ph. D., Genetic Psychology (Child Study); Mary D. Runyan, Kindergarten.

All degrees are conferred by Columbia University, but Teachers College offers two graduate diplomas: a Higher Diploma, won after at least one year of resident graduate study, intended "to fit teachers of superior ability and special academic attainments for the work of training teachers in colleges and normal schools, and for positions in the public-school service requiring a high degree of professional insight and technical skill;" a Secondary Diploma, likewise won after at least one year of graduate study, intended to fit specialists for teaching in high schools and colleges. Besides the above there are a number of undergraduate courses leading to special diplomas, such as the elementary teachers' diploma, the kindergarten diploma, the domestic science diploma, the manual training diploma, etc.; all self-explanatory, and nearly all based on a four years college course with the subject mentioned in the diploma made specially prominent.

Many advantages are afforded for the observation of actual teaching and school administration, and practice-teaching is made an important requirement for any and all diplomas.

The plant of Teachers College represents a capital of nearly two million dollars, and the annual expenditures are

more than two hundred thousand dollars, which is probably more than the entire expenditures of many of the state universities.

NEW YORK
UNIVERSITY,
SCHOOL OF
PEDAGOGY

The New York University, founded in 1831, was limited for many years to the single college of "arts and science." To this college have since been added a school of applied science, a graduate school, a school of pedagogy, a school of law, a school of medicine, and a veterinary college.

The School of Pedagogy was formally established in 1890, though its origin properly dates back to the school year of 1887-88. It was in the latter year that Dr. Jerome Allen was appointed "Professor of Pedagogy" and offered a course of "instruction in Pedagogics for graduate students" who were candidates for advanced degrees. At the earnest solicitation of several prominent teachers, he was induced to offer, in addition to the above, courses of university extension lectures upon pedagogics to classes of non-matriculants, not candidates for degrees. These courses were largely attended by resident teachers and became sufficiently popular to lead to the establishment of the school of pedagogy a few years later.

PURPOSE OF
THE SCHOOL

In the Minutes of the Council creating the school of pedagogy is the following statement: "The School of Pedagogy of the University of the City of New York is established this third day of March, 1890, to give higher training to persons who may have devoted themselves to teaching as their calling, and who are graduates of colleges of Arts and Science; or who are graduates of Normal Schools or Colleges of the State of New York; or who are able to present testimonials of general scholarship and culture equal to those received by the graduates of the New York State Normal Schools." It is

claimed that this was the first purely professional university school of pedagogy established in America, ranking on the same plane as schools of medicine and of law.

“The aim of the School of Pedagogy is to furnish thorough and complete professional training for teachers. For this purpose it brings together all that bears upon pedagogy from the history of education, from analytical, experimental and physiological psychology, from the science of medicine, from ethics, from philosophy, from æsthetics, from sociology, from the principles and art of teaching, and from a comparative study of different national systems of education. It unifies this knowledge into a body of pedagogical doctrine, and points out its application to the practical work of the educator.”¹

The school of pedagogy is purely a professional school devoting its entire attention to psychology and pedagogy. From two professors in 1890, it now has four professors and ten or more lecturers. The school has had to depend for support upon student fees and voluntary contributions and has been unable to expand as rapidly as other schools of education established later.

The School of Pedagogy is situated at Washington Square, New York city, right in the midst of the great body of city teachers, but being a purely graduate school and separated from the academic or undergraduate department of the University (ten miles away at Washington Heights), it does not attract as it probably otherwise would. It has no model or experimental school, and makes no provision for practice-teaching, though it is probable that the great majority of its students have had experience in teaching.

The school offers two graduate courses, one leading to the degree of Master of Pedagogy, the other to the degree

¹ *New York Univ., School of Pedagogy Announcement, 1901.*

of Doctor of Pedagogy, both requiring a thesis and at least one year of resident graduate study. At present (1901) there are about 350 students in attendance, many of whom are superintendents and teachers of long experience.

From its establishment in the early seventies at Berkeley, the University of California has taken the leading position among the better universities of the far West. It received great impetus and benefit from the pleasant rivalry created by the opening of Leland Stanford Jr. University in 1891-92, and for a time seemed likely to be overshadowed by the rapid growth and greater originality of the newer institution. But the early death of Senator Stanford, the consequent loss and delay in appropriations, and the late unfortunate, and probably unforeseen, difficulties affecting the teaching body, have resulted in placing the University of California again noticeably in the lead.

The University easily ranks with the best institutions of its kind in this country. It is first and foremost a teaching institution, and its department of education is representative of the best type of such departments in state universities. No State ranks higher than California in its teaching body, and this condition is due in large part to the immediate influence of the State University.

Beginning with the early eighties the following statement is made in the University register: "Upon recommendation of the Faculty, a diploma from the University entitles the holder to a teacher's certificate." From this time forward "Teachers' Courses" have been scheduled in different departments. Such courses increased in number until in 1891-92, the year preceding the establishment of the department of education, there were "Teachers' Courses" scheduled in English,

UNIVERSITY OF
CALIFORNIA,
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

TEACHERS'
COURSES

Greek, Latin, History and Political Science, Mathematics, and Philosophy. But prior to the establishment of the department of education these courses seem to have been designated teachers' courses because of the content or nature of the subject matter, and not because of the manner of the treatment nor because they were devoted to the methods of teaching the subject. In other words these courses were equally appropriate to students who had no thought of teaching.

In the University register for 1891-92, under the head of "Pedagogics," is published the following resolution, taken from the minutes of the meeting of the Board of Regents for May 14, 1889: "Resolved, That the Academic Senate be authorized to announce the intention of this Board to establish a course of instruction in the science and art of teaching as soon as the same can be properly organized." The same year under the department of philosophy is to be found the following statement: "It is the intention of the Department of Philosophy, not later than the year 1892-93, to offer at least one Course in addition to the above (a course in Empirical psychology, including formal logic, deductive and inductive.—G. W. A. L.), especially designed for teachers, upon some essential branch of pedagogics." Such was the apparent condition of affairs when, in 1892-93, the Department of Pedagogy was established, and Dr. Elmer E. Brown, instructor in Pedagogy University of Michigan, was appointed Associate Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching, in charge of the department.

An incident which probably had much to do with focusing the desires for a department of education at the State University was the opening the year previous of the Leland Stanford Jr. University with its department of education. The establishment of a department of education by the latter institution was appreciated by the teachers of the

State, and many experienced teachers who were planning to enter the State University changed their plans and went to Stanford instead. It should also be mentioned that at this time California had two good and prosperous state normal schools, and no provision for free public high schools; these facts would tend to lessen the real necessity for a collegiate department of education.

NATURE OF
THE WORK

The undercurrent of feeling which soon found expression in a good high school law, in addition to what has gone before, made the times seem especially propitious for the establishment of a university department of education. Dr. Brown was able to organize the isolated "Teachers' Courses" in the different academic subjects, into complete and extended pedagogical courses with definite meaning, covering both professional and academic instruction. Such a group of professional courses was established the first year leading to the University Teachers' Certificate.

REQUIREMENTS
FOR UNIVERSITY
TEACHERS' CER-
TIFICATE

The requirements for the University Teachers' Certificate, as first established, were quite similar to those of the University of Michigan, and are as follows: "(a) Special Knowledge. The completion of work amounting normally to ten hours per week for one year, in the subject or group of closely allied subjects that the candidate expects to teach; the ultimate decision as to the candidate's proficiency resting with the heads of the departments concerned.

(b) Professional Knowledge. The completion of work in Pedagogy (which may include the Course on the Philosophy of Education) amounting to six hours per week for one year.

(c) General Knowledge. Courses sufficient to represent (with the inclusion of Special Studies) four groups from the following list: Natural Science, Mathematics, English, For-

eign Languages, History, Philosophy. This requirement is intended to secure as broad culture as possible and sympathy with the various lines of High School work."¹

The requirements for the University teachers' certificate as outlined above cover two years of university study, but since the work is also credited toward the university degree, it does not necessarily lengthen the college course. A slight modification has been made in the professional requirements in that at least eight of the twelve hours (per week for one half year) must be taken in the department of education, while the remaining four hours may be devoted to an approved course on methods of teaching as offered in the academic department in which the student is most interested. With this exception the requirements remain the same as when first established. Many other universities have established similar courses, each leading to a university teachers' certificate. Such certificates are usually granted only to graduates of the institution, and are accepted in lieu of all teachers' examinations in the state in which they are granted, and frequently in many other states.

AIM OF THE
DEPARTMENT

The aim of the department as first expressed and since maintained is given in the University Register as follows: "It is the purpose of the Courses in Pedagogy to afford such instruction in the principles and the history of education as is desirable in a truly liberal culture, and to provide adequate professional preparation for University students who expect to teach. The courses are reserved for the third and fourth years of college residence."

NATURE OF
THE WORK

The courses offered by the department of education in 1892-93 were as follows: 1, The practice (art) of teaching, four hours per week, second term; 2. School Supervision, two hours per week,

¹ *University Register for 1892-93*, p. 41.

first term; 3. The History of Education, earlier periods, three hours per week, first term; 4. The History of Education, later periods, three hours per week, second term; 5. The Theory of Education, four hours per week, first term; 6. The Origin and Development of School Systems, one hour per week, second term; 7. Seminary for the comparative study of schools and school systems, two hours per week, two terms. To these courses have since been added courses on: Child Study; School Hygiene; Practice, and Visitation of Schools; Studies in Secondary Education; Ethnology; The Development of Character; and Seminaries for the study of special problems in education.

Some opportunity is afforded for practice-teaching, and visitation of schools and observation of teaching are provided for all. "The Tompkins School in Oakland is conducted as the regular observation school of the Department of Pedagogy."

The teaching force in the Department of Education in 1900 was as follows: Elmer E. Brown, Ph. D., Professor of the Theory and Practice of Education; Thomas P. Bailey, Jr., Ph. D., Associate Professor of Education as Related to Character; Fletcher B. Dresslar, Ph. D., Assistant Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching; and T. L. Heaton, B. L., LL. B., Assistant in Pedagogy.

OTHER UNIVER-
SITY DEPART-
MENTS OF
EDUCATION

There are many other departments of education concerning which the length of this chapter will permit only the briefest mention.

LELAND STAN-
FORD JR UNI-
VERSITY

Attention has already been called to the Department of Education in Leland Stanford Jr. University which was opened with the beginning of the institution in 1891. Earl Barnes, who was placed at the head of the department as Professor of Education, was full of ideas, vigorous, and

original, though more suggestive than critical. He was a true student wedded to no traditions. In his lectures throughout the State and in his conduct of the department he aroused the teaching force and stimulated thought as but few others have been able to do. His work was more that of an investigator than that of an instructor. Among his strongest courses were: The History of Education; Child Study; Educational Classics; and the Seminary for the study of special problems.

Professor Barnes resigned his position in 1897 to travel and study abroad, and the department was temporarily filled by transferring E. H. Griggs, A. M., from Professor of Ethics to Professor of Education and appointing E. P. Cubberley, A. B., and E. D. Starbuck, Ph. D., as Assistant Professors of Education with Margaret E. Schallenberger, Instructor in Education. Professor Griggs was a brilliant man and a popular lecturer but did not possess the training requisite for the head of a modern department of education. Twenty odd courses were scheduled in the department many of which had but little immediate interest for teachers.

The following year Mr. E. P. Cubberley was made Associate Professor of Education in charge of the department, and Dr. Starbuck continued as Assistant Professor of Education. Since the change from the administration of Professor Barnes the department has attracted less attention, but has probably been as successful in instructional work.

In January, 1888, twelve or more members of the senior class, looking forward to the teaching profession, requested Rev. Herbert F. Fisk, D. D., Principal of the Academy of the Northwestern University, to offer a course of lectures on Pedagogy. These were given for three months without university credit. In March the Faculty voted to recognize

NORTHWESTERN
UNIVERSITY,
EVANSTON,
ILLINOIS

the course for the next term as elective work. The interest and appreciation shown by the students seemed to the trustees to be sufficient reason to warrant the establishment of the work permanently. Consequently, in June of that year, a co-ordinate department of pedagogy was established in the University, and Dr. Fisk, the present incumbent, appointed "Professor of Pedagogics," while still continuing as principal of the University Academy.

UNIVERSITY
OF TEXAS, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

The department of pedagogy in the University of Texas was established in 1891-2, and Jos. Baldwin, LL.D., appointed professor in charge. The department began as a co-ordinate department of the University, and the courses were open as electives to juniors and seniors. The annual catalogue gave as the purpose of the department: "to prepare teachers for the best positions by uniting liberal scholarship with the most helpful professional training." The subjects first offered were: the art of school management; the art of teaching; applied psychology; and the history of education.

In January, 1896, the Regents abolished the department, but re-established it again the following year. Dr. Baldwin was made Professor Emeritus of Pedagogy, W. S. Sutton, M. A., Professor of Pedagogy, and A. Caswell Ellis, Ph. D., Adjunct Professor of Pedagogy. Since the re-organization the department of education has been unusually successful, and ranks with the best of its kind in the South.

UNIVERSITY OF
ILLINOIS, DE-
PARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

In 1890-91 Dr. Chas. DeGarmo was called to the University of Illinois as professor of Psychology, and seems to have offered courses in philosophy and pedagogy which students might elect in their junior and senior years. The professional subjects mentioned are: educational psychology; science of

instruction; special methods; school supervision; the history of education; and the philosophy of education. The next year Dr. DeGarmo resigned and the following year (1892-93) Dr. W. O. Krohn was appointed Assistant Professor of Psychology. He devoted about one half of his time to pedagogy and presented courses somewhat similar to those offered by Dr. DeGarmo.

In 1893-94 a department of pedagogy was created, and Dr. Frank M. McMurry appointed Professor of Pedagogics. No outline is given of the courses that were offered this year. The statement, however, is made that, "The work in Pedagogics includes both the theory and practice of teaching."

The next year (1894-95) Wm. J. Eckoff, Ph. D., was called as Professor of Pedagogics in place of Dr. McMurry, who had resigned to accept the Presidency of the School of Pedagogy, University of Buffalo. Like his predecessor, Dr. Eckoff remained but one year and the chair was then filled by Arnold Tompkins, A. M., as Professor of *Pedagogy*. The chair is now occupied by Dr. E. G. Dexter.

Since the organization of the department in 1893 it has remained a separate co-ordinate department of the University.

Pedagogical instruction was first organized in Rutgers College, New Brunswick, New Jersey, in 1892. It began as an independent department. The Head Master of Rutgers Preparatory School, Dr. Eliot R. Payson, was appointed Professor of History and Art of Teaching, and was directed to give lectures to the seniors during one term of the year.

In 1894 the University of Pennsylvania to meet the needs of teachers, who on account of their duties could not attend the regular college courses in the morning hour, offered a series of courses for teachers, extending throughout

RUTGERS COL-
LEGE, DEPART-
MENT OF
EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF
PENNSYLVANIA,
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

the year. These courses were arranged so as to avoid conflict with the hours of public school service. The instruction was both academic and professional, and was adjusted to students having at least a normal or high school training. At this time Martin G. Brumbaugh, A. M., was made Professor of Pedagogy in the University, and chairman of the committee on "Courses for Teachers." The Department of Pedagogy was established "as a result of a recognized need in the community," enforced by a grant of \$100 by the Public Educational Association of Philadelphia. The department of education was created and still remains a sub-department of philosophy.

UNIVERSITY OF
NEBRASKA,
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

A department of pedagogy was established in the University of Nebraska in 1895, though for several years prior Dr. H. K. Wolfe, professor of Philosophy, in response to the solicitation of teachers and students, had offered annually a few courses in pedagogy. The interest manifested in this pedagogical instruction was so pronounced that the Regents felt warranted in granting the request for a new department. To the unselfishness of Dr. H. K. Wolfe is due the fact that pedagogy was established as a separate co-ordinate department instead of a sub-department of philosophy. In 1900 the title of the department was changed to read "Department of Education" instead of "Department of Pedagogy" as at first established.

UNIVERSITY OF
COLORADO,
DEPARTMENT
OF EDUCATION

In 1895 the subject of pedagogy was added to the department of philosophy which already included, besides philosophy proper, ethics logic and psychology. This arrangement continued until 1898 when the department of philosophy was divided into two departments, the one including "Philosophy, Logic, and Ethics," the other designated the "Department of Psychology and Education." Professor Arthur Allin,

Ph. D., is head of the latter department. Hence pedagogy is not a separate department.

In Syracuse University, New York, pedagogical instruction was first offered in the department of philosophy, but a separate co-ordinate department of pedagogy was established in 1896.

SCHOOL OF
EDUCATION,
CHICAGO
UNIVERSITY

In 1901 the Chicago Institute, established the year previous by Mrs. Emmons Blaine as a school of pedagogy, was consolidated with the Chicago University forming with the latter a great "School of Education" which furnishes instruction to teachers of all grades from the kindergarten through the college. This school as now equipped and planned is quite similar to that of the Teachers College Columbia University already described. It does not do away with the pedagogical instruction offered by Professor John Dewey in connection with the department of philosophy but supplements and enforces it.

CHAIRS OF PED-
AGOGY ESTAB-
LISHED IN
1898 AND IN
1899

Wellesley, Bryn Mawr, Smith College, Middlebury College, Vermont University, University of Denver, and the University of Chicago all provided for pedagogical instruction in 1898. In most of these schools pedagogy has been made a sub-department of philosophy, due in part to the limited amount of teaching force and in part to the old idea that philosophy is the subject *par excellence* for the teacher.

In 1899 the University of Maine, the University of Alabama, Howard University, Washington, D. C., Furnam University, Greenville, S. C., Ottawa University, Kansas, and Mount Holyoke, Mass., opened departments of pedagogy. Since then many other institutions have been added to the list, so that to-day, with but two or three exceptions, every university of prominence in the United States has a depart-

ment of pedagogy, or better of *education*, the name by which these departments are now most frequently designated.

It is quite probable that a number of institutions have been omitted which should have been included in this article; although it has not been the intention to give an exhaustive list of institutions having pedagogical departments, which has not been done, but rather to give a brief account of a sufficient number of characteristic departments to show the development, purpose, nature, and trend of pedagogical instruction in this country.

RECAPITULATION To recapitulate briefly, the history of the professional training of teachers in the United States shows three distinct movements; the normal school movement described in chapter two which began with the educational revival in the middle of the first half of the nineteenth century, the movement for the establishment of normal departments in colleges and universities described in chapter three which began with the second half of the nineteenth century, and the movement for the establishment of university departments of education described in the above chapter and which has taken form within the last twenty years.

The movement which led to the establishment of normal schools had for its clearly expressed purpose the preparation of elementary and district school teachers. This object, though frequently modified by the normal schools to meet new conditions, has remained at base the main reason for the establishment of normal schools from that day to the present.

In the movement for the establishment of normal departments in colleges and universities the expressed purposes have been far less definite and uniform. In many instances these departments have been the direct outgrowth of legis-

lative action in creating state universities, and in such cases they have usually been intended to take the place of state normal schools and to prepare teachers for the elementary grades. In some instances these departments have been called forth in order to aid university students in their rivalry with normal school graduates for positions in the public school service. They have varied in their objects from the preparation of elementary teachers on the one hand to the preparation of teachers for any and all grades of public school work on the other; in one case loosely affiliated with the university, in another connected with the preparatory department or even taking the place of this department, and again established as a coördinate department of the university itself. From the lack of clearly defined purposes and because of covering ground thought to be pre-empted by other institutions these departments have met with the almost continued opposition of the normal schools from without, and the university faculties from within. Through the processes of growth and development they have come, for the most part, to take on one of two forms; either they have become actual state normal schools combined with the state university, as in Nevada, Utah and Wyoming, or they have grown into regular university departments of education for the special professional training of secondary teachers, as in the universities of Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Wisconsin, and others.

The movement for the establishment of university departments of education co-ordinate with other collegiate departments of the same institution had a more definite and clearly expressed ideal. From the first the main object of departments of education has been the professional training of secondary school teachers—city superintendents, elementary and high school principals, high school, normal, and college instructors; a second and almost equal purpose has been

the study and scientific investigation of educational problems—a sort of educational laboratory or clearing-house for the purpose of intelligently co-ordinating and adjusting the various problems connected with public education. When they have fallen short of this ideal it has usually been on account of the lack of appreciation and support on the part of the administration, or because a weak, inefficient man has been placed at the head of the department. These departments have come in for their full share of criticism; first, as should have been anticipated, by professors in the older departments of the universities whose territory thus seemed to have been infringed upon; second, by their brethren in the normal schools who had come to look upon the professional training of secondary teachers as their legitimate field; another class of criticisms has been the result of the want of knowledge, while still others have been just and valuable. Yet, notwithstanding the criticisms, these departments have continually grown in scientific and popular favor and have become a permanent and important addition to the educational system.

CHAPTER V

PEDAGOGICAL INSTRUCTION—WHAT, WHEN, HOW

THE greater number of the departments of education in colleges and universities in the United States have been in existence for less than ten years, a period scarcely long enough to give them an established curriculum and a definite form, but a period probably long enough to indicate what are considered to be the more essential subjects in the professional training of teachers and the more important lines of cleavage for future adjustment.

LACK OF
UNIFORMITY In the working out of a new problem by different persons under different environments, although the end in view be the same, the means to that end are apt to show great individuality of character. A certain amount of variation in educational courses is essential to healthy growth and is a sign of virility, but a study of the courses scheduled by departments of education has convinced the writer that much of the variation is due to the inefficiency and lack of proper training of the professors themselves.¹

¹ It is not an uncommon occurrence for a president of a university to call to the professorship of education a man who has had absolutely no scientific training for the field over which he is given control. These calls have resulted, no doubt, as a reward of merit, but too often it has been for merit in other than pedagogical lines, and in some cases it seems that the call has been the result of an effort to find a place for a man who is thought to be able to do less harm in a department of education than elsewhere. The friends of no other department at the present day would be thus insulted, and there is no longer any valuable reason why the professors of education should not be as carefully trained for their work as are the professors of other departments. No one would think of calling a man to the

The librarian must often be puzzled in cataloguing new books owing to the variance between title and content, so, in the table given below, it has been a difficult matter to arrange a proper grouping of subjects from the title of courses to be found in the university catalogues. To illustrate; the terms "Philosophy of education," "Science of education," "Principles of education," "Institutes of education" and "Educational theory," are all different in meaning, and yet as titles to university courses they are used to cover almost similar ground. Under the head of "Principles of education" one professor says: "This course aims to lay the basis for a scientific theory of education considered as a human institution. The process of education is explained from the standpoint of the doctrine of evolution, and the fundamental principles thus arrived at are applied from the threefold standpoint of the history of civilization, the developing powers of the child, and the cultivation of individual and social efficiency." Another professor under the head of "Institutes of education," says: "In this course education is treated first, as to its aims, its principles and its means from the standpoint of the physical, intellectual, and moral nature of man." Likewise school organization, school management, and school supervision are frequently combined in a single course under the head of school supervision and management, and may even include lectures on methods of instruction and the art of teaching, though the latter subjects are more often given separate treatment. Even the common phrase "History of education," which has taken on so definite a meaning, is not always used consistently as indicative of the content of university courses. So eminent an educational writer as the late Thomas Davidson entitles a treatise on education—"A History of Education",

professorship of Latin, of Physics, of History who has not had special training in these lines, neither should a man be called to the chair of education who has not had the best university training afforded in the particular lines he is to follow.

which might have been designated more appropriately, a history of the philosophy of education.

EVOLUTION OF
PEDAGOGICAL
COURSES

Notwithstanding the difficulties mentioned above, an effort has been made to show in tabular form the evolution and relative importance of the courses offered by departments of education during the past ten years. For this purpose twenty representative universities, that were among the first to establish departments of education, have been selected, as follows: The Universities of Iowa, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Missouri, Texas, California, Minnesota, Kansas, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Nebraska and Ohio (State); Columbia (including Teachers College), Clark, Leland Stanford, Harvard, Cornell, Brown and New York universities. Some of these institutions did not have departments of education prior to 1896-97, while only seven of the departments herein represented date back to the year 1890-91. A list has been made of the principal courses offered by the departments of education in the above institutions for the ten years beginning with the school year 1890-91; showing the number of departments represented in each case and the total number of hours of college recitations (reduced in all cases to a two-semester basis, an hour representing one recitation or class period per week for one-half year). From these points it is quite easy to note the relative attention given to the different subjects and the average number of hours which each subject that is offered receives. In the preparation of the table the thought has been to group together related subjects in order to facilitate comparison. The courses seem naturally to fall under the following heads: (*a*) Historical; (*b*) Theoretical or Philosophical; (*c*) Practical, including school organization, management, methods of instruction, observation and practice-teaching; and (*d*) Psychological, including child study, genetic and applied psychology.

TABLE I.—*Pedagogical Courses.*

	Departments repre- sented.	History of Education.	School Systems.	Educational Classics.	Historical.	Theory of Education.	Science of Education.	Philosophy of Educa- tion.	Institutes of Education.	Theoretical.	Supervision and Man- agement.	Method of Instruction.	Art of Teaching.	Observation and Prac- tice Teaching.	Practical.	Applied Psychology.	Genetic Psychology.	Child Study.	Psychological.
'1890	5	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	2	3	1	1	6	1	1	1	1
'1891	18	4	6	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$		14 $\frac{3}{8}$	5	7	2		14	3 $\frac{1}{2}$			
'91-'92	11	1	3	2	1	1	2	2		17 $\frac{3}{8}$	5	10	5		16	2		1	3
'92-'93	13	2	7	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	2	8 $\frac{1}{2}$		7	7	10	17		43	5 $\frac{1}{2}$		4	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
'93-'94	17	2	14	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	11	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	2		26 $\frac{3}{8}$	18	32	4		57	10 $\frac{1}{2}$		4	14 $\frac{1}{2}$
'94-'95	18	2	15	8	8	11	4	5	2	13	24	23	9		56	5		2	7
'95-'96	19	2	16	8	104	8	2	11	8	39	34	8	4		22	15 $\frac{1}{2}$		5	20 $\frac{1}{2}$
'96-'97	20	1	17	10	29	4	2	19	2	16	11	24	11		69	6		17	12
'97-'98	20	1	18	12	115	13	4	20	4	51	33	32	5	1	30	7		15	36
'98-'99	20	1	19	13	132	13	2	22	5	17	15	39	7		26	26		17	36
'99-'00	20	1	20	14	145	15	2	33	1	16	14	41	8		33	29	2	14	40
Total	144	33	90	18	252	109	18	57	21	129	100	99	39	21	259	60	9	55	124
Average hours of course.	4.7	3.3	2.9	3.5	4-	3.3	2.4	3.3	3.5	3.2	2.9	3	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.8	2.3	2.7	3.2

From what has already been said, the above table will no doubt be self-explanatory. The column headed "Departments of education" represents the total number of such departments in the above universities for the year indicated. Beginning with the second column, headed "History of education," and reading from left to right, the upper row of figures marked a, represents the number of departments offering courses in the subjects named at the head of the column, while the second row of figures marked b, represents the total number of hours given to the subject by all the departments for the years designated. The row of figures at the bottom marked "Average hours of course," indicates the average time given to the subject by all the departments represented for the ten years covered by the table.

COMMENTS ON
PEDAGOGICAL
COURSES

The grouping of the courses under the heads Historical, Theoretical, Practical, and Psychological is a somewhat arbitrary one depending as much upon the nature and treatment of the subjects themselves as upon the titles by which the courses are designated. No grouping of subjects can be made to fit all cases, and the one here given is intended only to be suggestive. The list of courses as given above does not include all subjects, but only the principal ones. To illustrate, in 1890-91 besides the subjects enumerated above, there were scheduled courses in didactics, libraries, school law, school hygiene, special method courses (under different departments), kindergarten and primary instruction; in 1895-96 there were scheduled, in addition to the above, courses in secondary education, educational doctrines (theory), educational ideals (theory), seminaries (devoted to original problems), Herbartian pedagogy, leading present topics and problems of education, educational reforms, school economy, current educational movements, experimental psychology,

descriptive psychology, physiological pedagogics, æsthetics in relation to education, sociology in relation to education, ethics, development of character, biological aspect of education, and to these have been added a few other courses in later years. Most of the subjects, however, not found in the table add but little to the general make up in the professional training of teachers, and may be omitted from the list of essential subjects.

A few institutions seem to be a law unto themselves, and for that reason it has been difficult, in some cases, to classify the courses offered by them with those of other institutions. For instance, the courses on education scheduled by Clark University in 1893-94 are as follows: Present status and problems of higher education in United States and Europe, outline of systematic pedagogy, organization of schools in Europe, school hygiene, educational reforms, motor education of children, and pedagogical seminary; while in 1897-98 the New York University School of Pedagogy scheduled courses as follows: history of education, physiological and experimental psychology, descriptive psychology, history of philosophy, physiological pedagogics, elements of pedagogy, systems of education, æsthetics in relation to education, sociology in relation to education, child study, institutes of pedagogy, ethics, school organization, management and administration, and original investigations. These schools are both graduate institutions, which probably accounts for some of the variations in courses. The former is limited in the number of students and confined to a separate department of education, while the latter represents a complete school of education with many departments. The treatment of the subject matter also varies, in the former the treatment is largely historical, in the latter psychological.

Reverting to the table it will be seen that most attention is given to the subjects designated historical, the history of

education leading all other subjects. Following historical courses, come in order practical, theoretical and psychological courses. The latter group, however, is only partially represented in the above table, since courses in educational psychology and child study are occasionally offered in departments of philosophy and psychology which are not included in the table. The subject of observation and practice-teaching is likewise not fully represented, for in many cases it is combined with school supervision and other subjects and is not made a separate course.

EDUCATIONAL
REQUIREMENTS
FOR HIGH
SCHOOL
TEACHERS

By means of a questionnaire, the views of fifty or more college and university professors of education were obtained to the following questions pertaining to the educational requirements of high school teachers.

In general, what ought to be expected as a minimum requirement, both (*a*) academic and (*b*) professional of teachers for secondary education?

(*c*) In the above minimum professional requirement what do you consider to be the essential subjects, the length of time to be devoted to each, and the manner of treatment, *i. e.*, by lecture or recitation, by text or topic, etc?

(*d*) In departments of education where the instruction is limited to a single professor, what work can be undertaken to best advantage?

A few professors instead of answering the questions directly referred the writer to literature wherein their thoughts had already been expressed, but by far the larger number answered directly. Quoting briefly from a number of these persons we are able to present the following important data:

Arthur Allin, University of Colorado,
Boulder.

VIEWS OF PRO-
FESSORS OF
EDUCATION

(a) A college degree with specialization in some one department. Blanket certificates should not be offered to a student.

(b) The same, largely, as in that for elementary training *plus* foreign secondary school systems, method of teaching his specialty, and advanced psychology and sociology.

(c) I cannot answer this briefly.

(d) The more general subjects which would interest all.

John A. Bergstrom, Indiana University, Bloomington.

(a) College course in which election and major subjects are permitted, and he should become a teacher of his major subject.

(b) A year's pedagogical work.

(c) A general course for high school teachers in the pedagogical department; the teachers' course in his major subject, and an observation and apprentice course.

(d) I regard the course given under (c) especially for high school teachers, as just about the minimum.

Stratton B. Brooks, University of Illinois, Champaign.

(a) A Bachelor's degree.

(b) Two years pedagogy, one year practice teaching.

(c) (1) Psychology one-half year, lectures and text; (2) Pedagogy, historical, theoretical and practical, one and a half years, by lectures and topics; (3) Teachers' courses in academic subjects, as in Latin, etc.; (4) Practice teaching under supervision, one year.

(d) 1, 2 and 4 above. The other professors should attend to 3.

Elmer E. Brown, University of California, Berkeley.

(a) A full course for Bachelor's degree in which at least

20 hours a week for one-half year are devoted to the candidate's specialty.

(*b*) Twelve hours a week for one-half year in education, in addition to a course in general psychology.

(*c*) 3 or 4 hours of history of education, a like amount of general theory of education, including the introduction to general methodology, the study of at least one system of schools, the close study of some other narrow topic, and at some point in the course there should be an introduction to the psychology of development, broadly considered. Methods should vary according to the individuality of the instructor.

(*d*) Only a part of that indicated above—the part he is best qualified to teach.

Julia E. Buckley, University of Chicago.

(*a*) This is a very broad question. Roughly answered, I should say (*a*) a Bachelor's degree; for higher work of a superintendent a Doctor's degree.

(*b*) A knowledge of theory as implied in answer to the first question, history of education, and practice.

(*c*) (1) Knowledge of fundamental theory: (2) History of education. (3) Practice. The time and treatment, I think, would vary with individuals.

(*d*) The department ought to offer these subjects which I have indicated successively if not simultaneously.

Nicholas Murray Butler, Columbia University, New York City.

(*a*) College graduation.

(*b*) One year of professional study, either as part of the college work or supplementary to it.

(*c*) Principles of education; History of education; Educational organization in the United States and abroad;

Methods of presenting an allied group of secondary school subjects; Knowledge of contemporary problems in secondary education, etc. Manner of presentation is unimportant. It depends on the particular teacher.

(*d*) Principles of education; History of education; Contemporary problems.

W. H. Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

(*a*) The minimum academic requirement should be the B. A. degree.

(*b*) The minimum professional requirement should be one year of professional training, and also one year of practice teaching under supervision would be desirable.

(*c*) Among the essential subjects are the physiology and psychology of development in childhood, and adolescence, educational psychology, school hygiene, and a general outline of the aims and principles of education, with a brief course in the history and organization of education. The questions of method, whether by lecture, recitation, text, etc., must be determined by the special conditions of the locality.

(*d*) The answer to this is relative to the instructor and the school. In college the instructor should use those parts of the field that he is best able to treat, and the courses should be culture subjects rather than directly practical. In Normal Schools the character of the work must be determined with regard to the preparation of the students, other instruction given in the school, and so on; but it should include courses in child study, school hygiene, educational psychology, and the most important parts of the history and general principles of education.

Ellwood P. Cubberley, Leland Stanford University, California.

(*a*) Not less than the A. B, degree, with particular emphasis on one or more lines.

(*b*) 15 to 18 hours of educational work of such a nature as will give some skill in applying principles, and will tend to remove the drudgery side.

(*c*) The subject matter is less important than the personality of the instructor. The same is true of plans of teaching. There should be some general course which will introduce the student to the work of teaching—its aims, methods, and ideals.

(*d*) The work he can do the best; the work which will tell most in the future teaching of his students.

Ellor E. Carlisle, Wellesley College, Mass.

(*a*) One course three hours weekly per year (I emphasize the "minimum").

(*b*) I think the professional training *can* be gotten in a semester of five months, no other work being carried during that period.

(*c*) Educational principles, approached from an historical or scientific point of view; applied psychology; material and method of education. Lecture and seminar, I should say.

(*d*) If the department is without access to an educational laboratory, as it is presumably in such cases, I think the anthropological, biological, psychological aspects of education should be presented.

A. Caswell Ellis, University of Texas, Austin.

(*a*) and (*b*) Space too limited to answer; I am doubtful in my own mind about it.

(*c*) History of education—lecture, texts and theses; Psychology—especially of developmental stages; and Physiology—lecture, laboratory, text and individual theses.

(*d*) History of education; psychology, including child study; a short course of practical "Management and method."

F. C. French, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

(a) A good college course. (b).

(c) I can not say that I should regard any professional study as absolutely essential for a secondary teacher, but I believe a year's study of education highly advisable—a semester 3 hours a week to each, psychology as applied to education and the history of education, with considerable incidental attention both semesters to the philosophy of education.

(d) The above together with a study of the educational systems and methods in England, France, and Germany.

J. P. Gordy, New York University School of Pedagogy.

(a) The answer to (a) is difficult to specify. I will only say that a secondary teacher should always be to some extent a specialist.

(b) He should have made a general survey of the history of education, of the science of education, and should have some special training in the methods of teaching his own subjects.

(c) I have mentioned the subjects above. As to time, 3 or 4 hours a week for a semester, for the third. As to method I prefer a condensation of the text-book and conversational method.

(d) History and science of education.

Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

(a) A college education covering a general training, and special training in some one field (several related subjects, and some one subject in particular).

(b) One year of elementary psychology and logic; one year of ethics (including "social ethics"); one year of the history of education; one year of educational theory; one-half year (fifty exercises) of practice teaching under direc-

tion, accompanied by appropriate instruction in the methods of teaching the candidate's subject or group of subjects; one year of the study of city school systems. All these subjects not less than two hours each per week.

(*c*) For the most part this has already been answered under (*a*) and (*b*). All three suggested methods, together with observation, discussion, and thesis.

(*d*) History of education; educational theory; study of school systems.

B. A. Hinsdale, late of the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor.

(*a* and *b*) I have discussed this subject in the Report of the Committee on the Certification of University and College Graduates for teachers to which I refer you. (The School Review for June, 1899, G. W. A. L.)

(*c*) I think the report just referred to substantially covers this question also. I understand you refer to pedagogical studies in the college or university. I am in favor of employing all means of instruction enumerated, the lecture, the recitation, the text, the topic.

(*d*) In such a case the pedagogical instruction should include the three lines, theory, practice, and history. Of course the tract can not be very wide in any one of these cases. If the main courses were not made too heavy, time could be found for child study, experimental matters, etc.

Walter Ballou Jacobs, Brown University, Providence, R. I.

(*a*) A college degree.

(*b*) One year of professional training in addition to college degree.

(*c*) *Theory, practice* (a course in psychology and ethics should be required for admission), school hygiene, school systems, and school management. (*d*).

E. G. Lancaster, Colorado College, Colorado Springs.

(a) Four years in college.

(b) Two years in professional work with one (of the two) spent half in regular teaching under criticism.

(c) Four hours of nature work, biology, etc., one year; four hours per week on the history of education, one year; Four hours on child study, one year; Two hours, one year, adolescence with reading; psychology, four hours, one year; hygiene, and the study of practical schools, etc.

(d) Psychology, history of education, child study and observation of methods if not real teaching.

J. J. McConnell, University of Iowa, Iowa City.

(a) The academic course should include a reasonably liberal treatment of the staple high school subjects as these subjects are represented in collegiate courses. Too many college students fit themselves for work in a narrow field. I think that, as a rule, those who take a general course with reasonable specialization in the branches they expect to teach get on better than those who devote themselves mainly to one or two objects.

(b) The professional course should cover one year of five hours a week as a minimum.

(c) For students who have had no experience as teachers :
(1) A general text-book course in which the laws of mind and mind development, and the laws of teaching are taken up, minimum time twelve weeks, ought to be longer; (2) Educational doctrines and principles, three hours a week for two terms (this course should include an exposition of the theories and doctrines that have given direction to teaching, and should also include their historical relations, lectures and reports); (3) secondary education, two terms, two hours a week, the high school curriculum and the high school organization and administration. So far as detailed

methods of teaching are concerned in this course, the various departments of the college or university which are represented in the high school should give suitable courses. The method should be by lectures and reports. No school, so far as I know, gives an arrangement like this.

(*d*) History of education, two hours during the year; philosophy of education and secondary education, the equivalent of three hours during the year; methods of teaching, two hours during the year; school organization and administration, one hour during the year; seminary, two hours during the year, a total of ten hours. The organization of courses as to time could be modified to meet the requirements of the situation.

Frank M. McMurry, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

(*a*) College graduation.

(*b*) At least one year of professional study.

(*c*) History of education, two hours per week for one year; general method, three hours per week for one year; special method, four hours per week for one year; psychology, three hours per week for one year; practice teaching, three hours per week for one year. Plan of treatment, lectures, text and discussions.

(*d*) Perhaps, history of education, general method, psychology, and practice-teaching, as given above.

D. R. Major, Ohio State University, Columbus.

(*a*) A college degree, B. A. or B. S.

(*b*) One year devoted entirely to professional study.

(*c*) History of education; text with collateral reading, recitation, free discussion, and lectures when the mood strikes you, one year of three hours a week. (2) The secondary school, foreign and domestic history, purpose,

studies, methods; one year two hours a week. (3) Presupposing a ground-work in psychology, logic, ethics, I would recommend a year of child study with special reference to the phenomena of adolescence, two periods a week. This course should include a good deal of anatomy and physiology, especially of the brain and nervous system, emphasis on hygiene with subjects usually taught in child study courses. The remainder of the time should be given to observation, assisting, and practicing in some one or more subjects under expert supervision.

(*d*) It seems to me that the three lines of work indicated in the preceding paragraph could well be handled by a single professor.

D. E. Phillips, University of Denver, Colorado.

(*a*) College graduation. (*b*) Two years of professional study, being the last two years of the college course.

(*c*) Pedagogy, theoretical and practical, three hours for two years; psychology, three hours for two years; child study, three hours for one year; philosophy, three hours for one year; all the methods named should have a place varying with the size of class, needs, interests, etc.

(*d*) Theories and science of education, educational psychology, psychological basis of methods, child study with practical phases.

Arvin S. Olin, University of Kansas, Lawrence.

(*a*) The work required for an A. B. degree.

(*b*) About 300 hours of professional work (probably equivalent to 16 university hours, *i. e.*, 16 hours of recitations a week for one semester.—G. W. A. L.).

(*c*) History of education, 100 hours; Organization, management and methods, 100 hours; Philosophy of education, 100 hours. Outlines of topics (authorities) and library readings.

(*d*) As above: perhaps also courses in comparative study of educational systems, school supervision, educational theory.

M. V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

(*a*) A pupil should be required to have specialized in the subject which he is to teach. In general he should have completed successfully twenty-five hours work, as these terms are usually understood in universities, in any subject before he is entitled to teach it. (*b*) In addition, he should have completed a teacher's course in the subject which he is to teach, conducted by the special professor in the university.

(*c*) Three hours should be given to educational psychology, two hours to what I may call mental development, which would include a study of adolescent phenomena, of mental fatigue, of individuality, etc. Three hours should be given to the principles of method and management, and two hours to the history of education. I should say the method of presenting this work would not differ from effective methods in any other subject and this would be a combination of the lecture and recitation method. If facilities will allow it I think it will be best to have the work in education centering around a model school so that it will be as concrete as possible. The greatest need it seems to me in the study of education is opportunity for the application of the laboratory method.

(*d*) I should think the best work that could be done by a single professor would be to conduct courses in principles of method and management, in mental development, and in history of education, making such uses of the high schools in the vicinity as time and circumstances will allow. If any work must suffer; it seems to me the theoretical could best be neglected.

Ruric N. Roark, Kentucky State College, Lexington.

(a) A college diploma.

(b) One year theoretical study, one year practice in secondary model school.

(c) Psychology, methodology, management, and the history of education. *All* methods should be used, the lecture least of all.

(d) Theory founded upon the four subjects named above.

Wm. O. Rogers, Tulane University, New Orleans, La.

(a) A college education or its equivalent.

(b) Some knowledge of the history of education, and a good teaching equipment in philosophy and psychology.

(c) It depends upon professor and student. "Mark Hopkins at one end of his log and the student at the other making a college," is as applicable as familiar. Lecture and recitation should be combined with assurance that the student does his or her share of the work. Topic is better than text, at least should precede it.

(d) Discussion of educational problems from philosophical and psychological bases.

Jas. E. Russell, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

(a) A Bachelor's degree and specialization in the subjects to be taught.

(b) Courses in the history of education, principles and practice of teaching.

(c) See article, "The training of teachers for secondary schools," *Educational Review*, April, 1899.

(d) History and philosophy of education; Psychology and its applications; School administration; Theory of teaching.

W. G. Smith, Smith college, Northampton, Mass.

(a) The work of a good B. A. degree, with distinction in the subjects which the candidate expects to teach afterwards.

(*b*) Instruction in the theory of education together with practice in teaching, covering a period of two years.

(*c*) The following subjects should form part of the professional instruction if not taken in previous college course: (1) Psychology, theoretical and experimental, 3 or 4 hours a week for one year; (2) Ethics, 3 or 4 hours for a semester; (3) History of philosophy, 3 or 4 hours for a semester; (4) Economics and sociology, 3 or 4 hours for a semester; (5) Physiology, 3 or 4 hours a week for a year; (6) History, general and special, 3 or 4 hours for a year; English language and literature, lecture and recitation.

(*d*) In such a case I believe the best course would be to give attention to the history of education in its broadest sense and to the more theoretical parts of the subject. The more practical parts would be learned in school later.

John W. Stearns, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

(*a*) College graduation, with special reference to specific lines of teaching.

(*b*) This will increase as time goes on; now it should be 12/5 courses (12 hours per week) for one semester (half year).

(*c*) Psychology, 3 hours; History of education, 3 hours; Logic, 2 hours; Principles of teaching, 3 hours. This it seems to me is the ordinary minimum course, to which I would add educational systems, supervision, etc., as circumstances permit. All methods of presentation should be used. (*d*) Omitted.

J. Richard Street, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.

(*a*) A four years' Arts course (B. A.).

(*b*) One year of college pedagogy.

(*c*) History of education; Philosophy of education; Psychology as applied to education; School systems; School organization; Methods as applied to special subjects of secondary course; Practice-teaching. There is no

justification of the lecture method. The students and not the teacher must do the work. Topics with text and references.

(*d*) The study of general principles.

Andrew F. West, Princeton University, Princeton, N. J.

(*a*) A Bachelor's degree from a good college, preferably Bachelor of Arts.

(*b*) Two years of graduate professional study of teaching.

(*c*) A very full course in the history, theory and institutes of education; special acquaintance with education in our century and country; a study of the methods of teaching all the secondary studies; and a study of school management, school law, etc.

(*d*) The history, theory and institutes of education.

A. H. Yoder, University of Washington, Seattle.

(*a*) The ideal would be a college degree in a good school with at least one year of advanced work in *another* institution, some *travel* if possible.

(*b*) History of education in its best sense; familiarity with *best ethical* literature; the pedagogical sciences, anthropology, psychology, physiology.

(*c*) Two years should be the minimum time devoted to professional work; I should like more, alternated with some teaching in elementary grades or as an *assistant*. I am a believer in apprenticeship. *History of Education*—well, I can't say about methods of presentation; I like all, but would keep away from lectures mostly, they leave too little for the student to do.

(*d*) History of education; literary interpretation; study of ethics if allowable; work in science should be done in conjunction with regular science departments. There should be some school inspection by way of excursions.

We have probably given the views of a sufficiently large number of representative persons to furnish intelligent guidance to any one interested in the arrangement of a suitable curriculum for a department of education. To the above answers we have added enough more from the entire list to make fifty in all on every question submitted. These when collated show the following results:

In general, what ought to be expected as a minimum requirement, both (*a*) academic and (*b*) professional, of teachers for secondary education?

ACADEMIC
REQUIREMENT

Regarding the first part of this question the opinion is almost unanimous that the high school teacher should be a college graduate, and this opinion is becoming quite generally shared by the public. It is also in accord with the thought expressed in the Report of the Committee of Fifteen, under the Report of the Sub-committee of Five on the training of teachers, which says, "It is a widely prevalent doctrine, to which the customs of our best schools conform, that teachers of elementary schools should have a secondary or high school education, and that teachers of high schools should have a collegiate education. Your committee believe that these are the minimum acquirements that can generally be accepted, that the scholarship, culture, and power gained by four years of study in advance of the pupils are not too much to be rightfully demanded."

Two other thoughts are made prominent in the academic requirements of the high school teacher. First, that he should have a *broad general education*, hence a B. A. rather than a B. S. degree; unless the latter is made to cover an equally broad culture foundation. Second, he should be a specialist in the subjects he expects to teach; not a specialist in the narrow sense of having his knowledge confined to a single subject, but a specialist in the broader sense of

being especially strong in one line after having had careful preparation in several others. No one familiar with the present demands on the high school teacher will doubt the reasonableness of the above requirements.

PROFESSIONAL
REQUIREMENT

(*b*) Under the head of professional requirements there is less unanimity of thought. The opinion that special professional study is necessary for the proper training of secondary as well as of elementary teachers is becoming more and more firmly established. This is shown by the rapidly increasing number of educational departments established in colleges and universities; it is further shown by the popularity of these departments with the student body, especially with those students who intend to teach, when manned by professors on a par in their training and ability with the professors of other departments.

As a further illustration bearing on the same point, answers were obtained from over one hundred city superintendents to the following questions: "In selecting a new teacher, other things being equal, would you prefer (*a*) a normal school graduate, (*b*) a college graduate with, or (*c*) without professional training?" The results show that for the grades (elementary schools) 52 per cent. prefer normal school graduates, 44 per cent. prefer college graduates with professional training, and 4 per cent. prefer college graduates but do not consider professional training necessary. For high school teachers 84 per cent. prefer college graduates with professional training, 10 per cent. college graduates without professional training, "The teacher is born not made," and 6 per cent. prefer normal school graduates because "They are more efficient teachers," "waste less time," and "make up for lack of scholarship by skill in teaching." It is interesting to note that the younger city superintendents are almost unanimous in their preference

for the professionally trained college graduate. Among the reasons given are: "It is too expensive to train teachers in the school-room;" "My experience shows that the professionally trained teacher is at least 25 per cent. more economical and efficient;" "Clearer insight into fundamental principles upon which true teaching is based;" "Breadth and depth of knowledge, higher ideals and greater efficiency;" "Less easily annoyed by the students and more skillful in imparting knowledge."

While the thought is quite general that teachers should have special professional training, the amount of such training is still an open question. In the data given above it varies from a minimum of ten hours (10/5 university credit points) purely pedagogical work to a maximum of two years of professional training. In the latter case the professional course is usually made to cover at least twenty-five hours of study on the academic subjects that the student expects to teach. The average amount of purely professional study required of students for the university teachers' certificates, is usually given at from fifteen to eighteen hours. This may or may not include a course in psychology offered by the department of philosophy and a special methods course offered by the department in which the student has his major subject. The professional work is more often spread over the last two years of the college course. By some it is thought preferable to have it deferred until the last year in college, or taken up as graduate work, and made a matter of concentration and intensive study.

(c) "In the above minimum professional requirement, what do you consider to be the essential subject?" (d) "In departments of education where the instruction is limited to a single professor, what work can be undertaken to best advantage?"

A summary of the answers to these questions can prob-

ably be shown to best advantage if placed in a single table as given below.

TABLE II

SUBJECTS OF STUDY.	Per cent. of times named under (c).	Per cent. of times named under (d).	SUBJECTS OF STUDY.	Per cent. of times named under (c).	Per cent. of times named under (d).
History of Education...	90	82	School Administration .	8	8
Educational Psychology.	66	50	Science of Education ..	8	8
General Method.....	42	36	Educational Ideals	8	
Theory of Education...	26	26	Physiology	8	
Practice-teaching	26	20	Biology	8	
Child Study	24	24	Sociology	6	
Philosophy of Education	24	22	Contemporary Problems	6	2
Special Method	20	18	Genetic Psychology....	6	
School Management....	18	16	Institutes of Education.	4	2
Educational Systems ...	18	12	Educational Doctrines .	4	
Principles of Education.	18	6	School Law	2	
Ethics	18	4	Economics	2	
Adolescence	16	..	Anthropology	2	
Observation of Teaching	12	12	Number of subjects		
School Hygiene	12	4	named.....	32	21
Logic	12	..	Average number of sub-		
School Organization....	10	6	jects named by each		
School Supervision	10	8	person.....	5.44	3.7
Mental Development ..	10	6			

The above table represents the tabulation of fifty answers to each of the questions (c) and (d). Should we group these subjects under the heads, historical, theoretical, practical, and psychological, as indicated in table I, omitting a few subjects difficult to classify, we have under (c) essential subjects—practical 32 per cent., psychological 27 per cent., historical 23 per cent., theoretical 18 per cent.; and under (d) the essential subjects to be offered in departments limited to a single instructor—practical 34 per cent., historical 26 per cent., psychological 21 per cent., and theoretical 19 per cent. It is probable that under both (c) and (d) the

subjects named are thought to be in every case the most vital in the professional training of secondary teachers. But under (*d*) the teaching force was reduced to a minimum which tended to modify the answers in a marked degree, and to bring out into clearer relief the more essential subjects. The subjects grouped under the head *practical* receive in both cases the most attention, then follow in order, historical, psychological, theoretical. The psychological group receives much less attention under (*d*) than under (*c*), while the other groups receive more attention under (*d*). A number of subjects, as adolescence, logic, educational ideals, biology, sociology, etc., which are thought to be essential under (*c*), are entirely omitted under (*d*). There are thirty-two subjects in all named as essential under (*c*), and twenty-one under (*d*), but the number would be considerably reduced if we should combine such topics as school organization, administration, supervision, and management under one head, which was probably more often intended. The average number of subjects named by one person was 5.44 under (*c*) and 3.7 under (*d*). The average amount of time allotted to the different courses when designated is as follows: History of education, 5½ hours; Educational psychology, 4 hours; Methods of instruction, 3 hours; Theory and philosophy of education, 4 hours; Child study, 4 hours; Practice-teaching, 4½ hours; and School management, etc., 3 hours.

COMPARISON OF
TABLES I AND II

The differences in results between I and II are not particularly marked, although the former represents the principal courses scheduled by departments of education for the past ten years, while the latter represents the present thought of professors of education regarding the essential subjects in the professional training of secondary teachers. The most marked difference is in the psychological group, especially in edu-

cational psychology, which receives much more attention in the second table. This is probably due to the fact that while educational psychology is considered essential in the professional training of teachers, it is sometimes offered by the department of philosophy (more frequently so in earlier years), and on this account has not always been included in table I. The history of education is the one subject that receives the greatest attention throughout.

From this study it is evident that the subjects which are thought to be of most importance in the professional training of secondary teachers are as follows: History of education, with a probable course in Educational systems foreign and domestic; Educational psychology, including Child study; Theory of education, including the science and philosophy of education; Methodology, including both general and special methods; School administration, including organization, supervision, and management; and Observation of actual school work and practice-teaching. An outline of work strong enough as it stands, but one which will probably be strengthened by the addition of a seminary course for the study of original problems, and a course in the study of current educational literature which will be found both interesting and valuable.

PROFITABLE
STUDIES AS
JUDGED FROM
THE STUDENT'S
STANDPOINT

We have now set forth the *what* in the professional training of teachers as seen from the standpoint of the university instructor. It would be of interest if we could add the views of university students regarding the professional courses which they had found most helpful to them. To obtain the data which would give accurately such information, freed from the many sources of error, would be an exceedingly difficult task, and must be left with the mere suggestion for a future study.

In reference to the value of any study more depends no

doubt upon the teacher and the particular nature of the student himself than upon the subject matter. Any subject taught by a good teacher who has faith in his work will be found interesting and profitable by students. The peculiar environment, together with the advantage and disadvantage in the scheduled arrangement of the time and place of the different courses, influences materially the choice of students. No one of the essential subjects given above is found to be universally popular, and on the other hand courses in educational theory and practice, and in principles of education which as a rule do not attract large bodies of students, become when conducted by such men as Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia, or Ellwood P. Cubberley of Leland Stanford, the most popular courses of the department. Notwithstanding all this there are some courses, if we take into consideration many institutions, that are attended on the average by far more students than others. Even in the same institution, where one person conducts all the professional courses the students are attracted to one subject more than to another.

University students as a class are keen critics. They take a common sense view of life and are desirous of the best. The number who are looking for easy courses is by no means large. The great majority are deep in earnest; they have no time to waste, but they want value received for the money and energy which they are putting forth. They want food and when it is to be had in the university they will find it. The newer students get their cue from the older ones and no course will long attract from the mere sound of the title. When, therefore, large numbers of students are attracted, year after year, to one course rather than to another, it must be on account of some intrinsic value either in the subject itself or in the manner of its presentation.

If we could furnish the reader with the number of students who have been in attendance on all courses offered during the past year by college and university departments of education it might furnish a clue to the thought we have under consideration. Such information is seldom given in the published records, and must be obtained through correspondence. From fifteen universities furnishing such data the average number of students to the class in the more important subjects was as follows: Theory of education, including courses in the philosophy and the principles of education, 72; history of education, 50; child study, 43; educational psychology, 38; methods of instruction, 34; school organization and management, 24; school systems, 24; observation and practice, 18.

The courses in educational theory and in the principles of education are more often given as lecture courses open to all students, and aim to cover the subject in a broad way. This, in addition to the fact mentioned on the previous page, probably accounts in part for the unusually large class average. Omitting the large classes in four institutions, the class average in the remaining institutions is reduced to 41. The course in observation and practice-teaching, owing to the lack of sufficient openings in the public schools for such work, is of necessity limited to small classes of special students, and the number given above does not therefore truly represent the student's real interest in the subject. With these exceptions, it is probable that the courses are represented in somewhat their true order. In the University of Nebraska the popular courses are those in the history of education and child study, both of which are attended by many students who have no thought of teaching, and this notwithstanding the fact that these courses require more time of the students for the university credit received than any of the other courses in the department. During

the past semester the attendance in these courses was: History of education, male 31, female 79; child study, male 20, female 70.

Seventy-five graduates from the University of Nebraska who received the university teacher's certificate (for which the following professional courses are required: psychology history of education, child study, and any two of the following: methods of instruction, educational psychology, supervision and management) gave answer to the following question: "From what one of the professional courses did you receive the most benefit?" The sex and age of the graduates answering the question were given, but not the name; thus the writer had no way of knowing from whom any particular answer came. This was purposely planned in order to give greater freedom of expression. The results show that nineteen ($25\frac{1}{3}$ per cent.) think that their greatest help came from the course in the history of education, eighteen think it came from the course in child study, fourteen from psychology, eleven from methods of instruction, nine from educational psychology, and four from supervision and management. It is worth noting, that of those who received the greatest benefit from the course in the history of education, thirteen were male and six female; of those who received the greatest benefit from the course in child study, twelve were female and six male. In the other courses the divisions were more nearly equal, while of the whole number answering the question, thirty-six were male and thirty-nine were female.

DO PROSPEC-
TIVE TEACHERS
SEEK PROFESSIONAL
TRAINING?

It is thought by many that university students looking forward to the profession of teaching, especially in secondary schools, do not avail themselves of the professional training offered in the universities. That this is true in some cases must be admitted, but that it is not generally

true, and that it is far less true to-day than formerly, must also be admitted. Where this is true, it is usually on account of the newness of the department, or it results from the natural conservatism of old institutions, wherein it requires much time to change from the old to the new order of things. From such institutions the greatest hindrance to the professional training of teachers comes from the professors of other departments, who feel that such training is unnecessary and advise their students accordingly. This is an honest and wholesome opposition, which will give way in time to better judgment and wiser counsel.

Professor Hanus of Harvard University says, "This is true of Harvard. Indifference on the part of the employers of teachers (including principals and superintendents now in service); indifference of the public to professional training for college-bred teachers; traditional disparagement of professional training by college professors, are the principal reasons for the condition."

"I think it is true of Ohio University. Explanation: lack of the appreciation of the need of it on the part of college professors and boards of education."—J. P. Gordy, formerly of Ohio University.

"It is true of Chicago University. Pedagogy is regarded as a speciality to be taken only by those who are to teach pedagogy."—C. H. Thurber, formerly of Chicago University.

"It is true. Students lack knowledge of the possibilities of pedagogical subjects. I estimate that sixty of our seniors will teach, forty-two are taking pedagogy."—Ellor E. Carlisle, Wellesley College.

"There are a few who enter teaching that do not take the courses in pedagogy, chiefly those who are looking for college places. Most colleges do not require this of their instructors."—W. B. Jacobs, Brown University.

"Very few have no professional training. Press of other

work is perhaps the greatest reason. The opinion that it is not needed is dying out rapidly."—Arthur Allin, University of Colorado.

"It is not true. None receive a certificate enabling them to teach who do not take at least twelve hours of professional work; many take fifteen to eighteen hours in education."—Ellwood P. Cubberley, Leland Stanford University.

"Not true here. Where true, it is generally due to the fact that the pedagogical work is so namby-pamby and stupid that an active brain gets too weary to stand it."—A. Caswell Ellis, University of Texas.

"All who have graduated since this department was organized and are teaching, took the professional training. This year's graduates are all, save one, taking the work; four do not intend to teach. If such is true, it must be due mainly to the manner in which the department is handled."—D. E. Phillips, University of Denver.

"Every one teaching from our last class took full work in pedagogy."—E. G. Lancaster, Colorado College.

"It has not been true since we have offered a regular course in pedagogy. I know of none who expect to teach who are not taking the work in full."—Lilian Scott, Baker University, Kansas.

"Probably a small proportion who intend to teach do not take pedagogical work."—D. L. Kiehle, formerly of the University of Minnesota.

"It is not true here. Our State law now requires 10/5 minimum preparation in order to get a teaching permit."—John W. Stearns, Wisconsin University.

"By far the larger number of students going out from this university who teach do some portion of the pedagogical work. I am inclined to think that certain students who are preparing themselves for highly specialized work, as say the classics, looking forward to advanced positions,

are rather inclined to pass pedagogical work by. This is only a conjecture and may be wrong."—B. A. Hinsdale, late of the University of Michigan.

The above quotations are typical of others. In the large majority of institutions having departments of education, all students intending to teach take advantage of the work. There are no doubt in every class of graduates a few who, as undergraduates, had no thought of teaching, but who, after graduation, either on account of changed circumstances or because they have been encouraged by the advantageous employment of their classmates, conclude to try their luck in teaching. The lack of sufficient discrimination on the part of many school boards often gives to such students good positions in which to experiment.

There are a few students who, though intending to teach, are prevented from taking pedagogical work by the press of other university requirements; and still others who do not take professional studies because they have been led to believe in the hackneyed expression, that "teachers are born, not made," a statement which is scarcely as true of the teacher as it is true of the lawyer, the physician, the minister, the banker, the farmer, and men in other occupations, and not a whit more true. Another fallacy which has had its influence in deterring students from departments of education is the thought, that "when an individual knows a subject he can teach it." Any student with a fair share of common sense need not spend more than one year in the ordinary university to be convinced of the absurdity of this statement. Many a university professor whose scholarship no one would question is an absolute failure as a teacher, and if in a high school or grammar grade position would have to resign before drawing his first month's pay. Probably in the same university are other professors whose scholarship is scarcely sufficient to enable them to pass

muster on drill day, but who, as teachers, are able to clarify the subject and inspire their students to loftier heights than they themselves have been capable of attaining.

With these exceptions, which are few in the aggregate, and are continually decreasing in number, professional training *is* sought by students who intend to teach, and in most departments of education, besides prospective teachers, are found many students who have no thought of teaching, but who take the work on account of its culture value. As shown in another part of this chapter, school superintendents prefer pedagogically-trained teachers for the high schools as well as for the grades when they can be had, and in the struggle for success the university student will not be slow in shaping his work along the lines that promise the greatest future efficiency.

UNIVERSITY
TEACHERS'
CERTIFICATES

Many universities have arranged work leading, on graduation, to a university teachers' certificate. Such courses have usually resulted from concerted action after careful consideration of the real needs of public school teachers, and represent the best thought of the university upon the subject. In general, the requirements for the university teachers' certificates cover three distinct lines of preparation. Of these requirements the first one, designated general knowledge, is intended to give culture and breadth, and requires for its completion a university degree, preferably a Bachelor of Arts degree. The second requirement, designated special knowledge, is intended to give a certain degree of specialization in the subjects which the candidate expects to teach. It is usually made to cover twenty or more hours of university credit in one subject, or preferably two allied subjects which are among the list of academic subjects taught in high schools. The third requirement, designated professional knowledge, is intended to acquaint the student with

the history, organization, theory and practice, and the more practical problems of education and public school teaching. On this point Dean Russell, of Teachers College, Columbia University, says: "But the least professional knowledge that should be deemed acceptable is an appreciation of the physical conditions essential to success in school work and a thorough understanding of psychology and its applications in teaching, of the history of education from the culture standpoint, and of the philosophic principles that determine all education."

The professional requirement usually covers from fifteen to eighteen hours of university credits in the essential pedagogical subject, as indicated in another part of this chapter. In some universities having better equipped departments of education there is a fourth requirement, known as practice or skill in teaching. Quoting again from Dean Russell, who says: "Present conditions seem to me to indicate four qualities pre-eminently desired in the teacher: (1) General knowledge, (2) professional knowledge, (3) special knowledge, and (4) skill in teaching. The inability of the average teacher to present these four qualities in due proportion is the principal cause of the prevailing chaos in secondary education."

The Nebraska university teachers' certificate was established in 1896. It is quite similar in its conditions and requirements to those in other state universities, and is offered as a type. "The university teacher's certificate is granted to such graduates of the university as have satisfactorily completed the work outlined below, and have shown such marked proficiency therein as to justify the faculties in recommending them for the profession of teaching.

"The professional work required for the teacher's certificate may be elected, the same as work in all other departments, by regular students above sophomore standing, by experienced

teachers and by unclassified students who satisfy the heads of departments that they are sufficiently qualified to pursue the work.

Requirements: (a) General knowledge. The candidate must hold the bachelor's or master's degree from this university. The correct use of English is a prime requisite.

(b) Special knowledge. The completion of work amounting normally to 20 hours in a subject or group of closely allied subjects which the student expects to teach, the ultimate decision as to the student's proficiency resting with the departments concerned. As examples of groups of subjects may be mentioned Latin and Greek, Modern languages, English and history, history and political economy, mathematics and physics, physics and chemistry, botany and zoology, drawing and manual training.

(c) Professional knowledge. The completion of 16 hours in psychology and education. It is recommended that about one-third of this work be taken in the department of philosophy and the remainder in the department of education. As a substitute for the two hours' course in general methods, the student may elect a special teacher's course offered by the department in which he is taking his special work.

All general questions relating to the student's professional work are under the supervision of a committee consisting of the professor of education, the professor of philosophy, and the dean of the college in which the student is registered, and recommendations for the teacher's certificate are made through this committee to the faculties of the university."¹

In most cases these university teachers' certificates are recognized by legislative enactments and accepted in lieu of all further teachers' examinations in the states in which they are granted; in many cases they are accepted by the proper

¹ *University of Nebraska Calendar, 1902-1903*, pp. 315-316.

school authorities of other states as sufficient credentials upon which to grant teachers' licenses without examination.

When the meaning of these certificates becomes known to school officers and the public they will be far more generally recognized as valuable credentials upon which to test the merit of a teacher.

THE WHEN OF
PEDAGOGICAL
INSTRUCTION

The question as to the time when pedagogical instruction shall be given, is still an open one, though it is probably being settled in the most efficient way through natural adjustments. Those who have given the subject serious thought are divided into three classes. In the first group are those who believe that the professional instruction relating to the teaching of any subject should not be separated from the academic study and recitation of the subject matter itself; the pedagogical instruction should be freed from theory, made essentially concrete, and practically illustrated in the study and recitation of every subject. The best examples of this view are to be seen in the elementary normal schools of Germany, and to a large extent in the elementary normal schools in the United States and other countries.

The second group hold that the most effective results are obtained when the pedagogical instruction is given separate and distinct from the academic instruction; both to be in progress at the same time, but the academic instruction to be kept in advance of the professional by at least one or two years. Much more stress is placed upon the history, theory, and fundamental principles of education, and less attention given to concrete illustrations and direct applications. An illustration of this view is to be found in the pedagogical seminaries of the German universities, and a still better one in the college and university departments of education in the United States.

The third group hold to the view that the professional in-

struction should be entirely divorced from the academic, the latter belonging properly to undergraduate study and the former to graduate study. The academic instruction, therefore, should be completed before the professional is taken up, and when the pedagogical instruction is once begun it should be given undivided attention, along with application and practice. This view is seen to best advantage in the German gymnasial seminary. It has not been well worked out in this country, and there are consequently no very good illustrations. The School of Pedagogy, New York University, is probably the best example in the United States; however, it lacks on the side of direct application and practice. In many of the larger cities there is a normal or teachers' course, which follows immediately after high school graduation; that, in a large part, represents the above view, though here again there is a weakness in both the academic and purely professional studies.

While the three views expressed above cover in the main the principal thought regarding the time when pedagogical instruction should be given, there are many variations and much overlapping. In actual practice it is often difficult to discover the lines of demarcation, and yet beneath all there lie three distinct pedagogical principles. The first is represented by the thought that we learn to do by doing, and we learn to teach by observing the instruction of a master and by imitating his example. Each lesson becomes a model lesson for the student to observe, understand and apply repeat¹. The underlying principle is one of imitation, enforced by the thought that we learn to do by doing. Educational principles are brought out and established in connection with the original study and recitation (teaching) of the subject itself, or by means of extended reviews. Where this view is maintained in its purest form, every teacher must be a model teacher and every lesson contain such

material and be presented in such a manner as to be the most efficient when passed on from individual to individual.

For young students who are plastic and lack broad scholarship, but who desire to prepare quickly for the profession of teaching, it is the most efficient method. It no doubt has much value in the training of elementary teachers whose future work must consist largely in carrying out fixed courses of study, formative work, and drill. Confidence and contentment, two qualities fostered by this method, are not in themselves bad qualities to be possessed by the elementary teacher. Such a method, however, must materially interfere with the originality and progressive spirit of the student, and for this reason may be better adapted to the stable society and more fixed condition of elementary education in Germany than to the conditions existing in the United States.

TEACHING AND
LEARNING
DISPARATE
PROCESSES

Those who hold to the second view do not underrate the value of imitation and of action as conditioning forces in the process of education, but they maintain that the processes of learning and of teaching are two disparate processes that cannot be carried on effectively by the same persons at the same time. The process of learning is one of acquisition and mental adjustment, while the process of teaching is one of guidance and the imparting of knowledge. The prevailing motive in the one case must be the desire to know or understand, while in the other it must be how to impart, or assist others to know, what is already known. In the one the end in view is the object or subject-matter, in the other the growing mind of the child. To confuse the student by interpolating principles regarding the process of teaching while he is still in the midst of the process of learning to understand and appreciate the subject-matter itself, is to defeat the true aim of instruction.

Before one can plan to best advantage for the teaching of a subject, which naturally requires much mental adjustment and reorganization of material with the new thought in view, he must know the subject; though he will probably know it much better after this second study with the thought of teaching. Hence, in the education and preparation of teachers in the universities, it is thought best to have the academic instruction precede by at least one or two years that of the professional. However, as a knowledge of the art of study and of the means through which we acquire knowledge are fundamental requisites to successful teaching, it is thought best to continue the academic studies along with the professional, in order that the one may be made to assist and reinforce the other. Again, as every successful teacher must be also a successful learner or student, it is felt that some real study or investigation (preferably in the academic subjects to be taught later) should be in operation during the entire time of the professional instruction, in order to give to it meaning and force. Teaching is largely a conscious process, and with mature students theory may be made to economize practice, and greatly increase the efficiency of the prospective teacher.

The basic principle of the third view is that of isolation and concentration. Here the student has completed his academic studies, at least for the time being, and is ready to devote his entire attention to the professional subjects, along with their application to the process of teaching. In the German gymnasial seminary great stress is placed upon actual teaching under guidance. This may or may not be valuable. The more stable the conditions of society and of education, the more valuable becomes the practice-teaching. Some practice-teaching is always valuable, but clear conceptions of the purposes of education, the means by which it is to be brought about, and the nature of the growing mind

which is to receive it, are in the end far more valuable. Both are important, but if either is to be neglected, neglect the former. Ten years of practice-teaching without study of educational principles will do far less to make a true teacher than two years of study under the right environment without practice-teaching. Everything that detracts from the originality and progressiveness of the individual detracts from his success as a teacher.

HOW SHALL
PEDAGOGICAL
INSTRUCTION
BE GIVEN?

In the quotations from professors of education, presented in another part of this chapter, is found a partial answer to the above question.

It is usually the first thought of every one, that the professional instruction should be given in like manner to that of the academic; what is true of one is true of the other. But further consideration is apt to lead one to question this statement. It is true that the environment, nature and size of the class, the peculiar capabilities of the instructor, and the amount of assistance, tend to modify or fix the manner of treatment. But it is also true that the method has much to do with the efficiency of the work, and all methods are not equally appropriate and valuable.

In answering this question it becomes necessary to take into consideration the nature and purposes of professional training. It is to give knowledge to be sure, and in so far is similar to academic training, but this knowledge is of a special nature adapted to a particular calling. The primal object of professional instruction is not to make the scholar, important as that may be, but to make the teacher.

ESSENTIAL
QUALITIES OF
THE TEACHER

What are the essential qualities of the teacher?
or rather what are the greatest deficiencies?

Lack of intelligence, scholarship, breadth and depth of knowledge, special knowledge of the subject to be taught, ability to see the relationship of studies ;

lack of judgment, determination, originality, and the progressive spirit: qualities all of which belong to and are concerned with the academic instruction more than with the professional. But there are other qualities which have still more to do with the success or failure of teachers, and these belong more appropriately to the professional training. Among these qualities are: an attractive personality, an amiable disposition; an understanding of, and sympathy with child nature (human nature); self-control, tact, grit, and ability to direct and govern; keenness of insight, command of language, ability to impart knowledge and to influence others; a pleasant and well modulated voice, energy and uprightness of character; power of adaptation, a professional spirit, a commendable purpose, and an appreciation of, and a desire for, what is ennobling in human nature. These are not all the qualities demanded of the true teacher, but they are probably the more important ones that must be considered under the head of professional training. In just so far as the method of professional instruction has been made to stimulate and develop these qualities, to that degree has it been successful.

We have in mind now university students who are preparing for principalships and high school positions, and what we are led to say will be with this class in view. It is the opinion of the writer that such students lack most in ease and readiness to express their thoughts in clear, terse English. This difficulty must be overcome, and the class-room is a good place in which to begin. The lack of a good command of language may not be a serious difficulty to the scientist or the mechanic who has other means of expression, but to the teacher it is almost a *sine qua non*.

Our best students are often timid and ill at ease when endeavoring to express their thoughts. They see far better than they can express. They need courage and power to

do. This can be brought out to best advantage in the classroom, but not, as the reader must know, by the lecture method. The students must be given opportunity and power to do, and this will shape the method. Occasional lectures are valuable, and a lecture course may be of service in giving breadth of view, but such a course cannot develop the latent power of the student, or materially increase his ability to act.

METHOD OF
TREATMENT

What then shall be the method in the professional training of teachers? Evidently it ought to be such a form of class-room work as will tend to supplement the academic instruction, to give courage and originality to the student, and to increase his desire and ability to perform. It should call forth and develop his latent powers, especially those powers which are essential to the teacher. It should keep him constantly on the alert, thoughtful and active. It should furnish him with a key not only to the best thoughts of his instructor, but also to the best thoughts, ideals, and forms of expression of his classmates. It should be a means of discovering and correcting the weaknesses and idiosyncracies of the students. It should be in part a model which students could use to advantage in their after teaching.

Such a method would not be a lecture method, where the teacher is supposed to pour forth and the students to drink in; neither would it be a recitation method, in which the students, by means of catch-questions from the instructor, give forth what they have previously learned. But it would be the best features of both these methods combined with a third—laboratory or developmental method—in which teacher and student are alike alive and growing, each in turn aiding to give direction to the discussions and thought of the hour. The work for the most part will consist of extensive reading, brief reports, timely questioning, pointed discus-

sions, and brief talks or lectures by the instructor in which the scattered threads are united. To conduct a recitation in this manner requires far more strength and energy of the instructor than to devote the time to lecturing, but the returns much more than justify the outlay. In such courses as the history, or theory of education, where the main object is to give to the student knowledge of fundamental principles and breadth of view, there may be times and circumstances when it seems best to give the work by means of lectures only, but even here the student would greatly appreciate the opportunity of sharing more in the class work.

From what has already been said, one might infer the nature of the preparation. With immature students a text is almost an indispensable requisite, but not so with university students, especially juniors, seniors, and graduates. Yet even with university students it will often be found helpful to have a well-chosen text, or better still to have several texts, to be used to furnish the nucleus for class reports and discussions. But the work will be greatly strengthened by carefully-prepared topical outlines, with plenty of references and some leading questions. Such an outline will be beneficial in giving direction to students, and through a proper assignment of references, every member will be responsible for some material or report outside of the main text or nucleus. In this way a large part of the entire field is gone over, and the whole class receives the benefit of what is essential or worth while in all. It teaches students how to use a library, to extract wheat from chaff, or to discern when it is all chaff. If the instructor knows his subject, this plan will enable students to become good gleaners and to give quickly and accurately the essentials of an article.

There are some subjects, as educational classics, in which a text is essential, but even here collateral reading will add

to the interest and benefit of the study. It is often difficult to find a good college text-book on the different professional studies, but with a good systematic outline covering the more important phases of the subject the absence of a text is of less moment. Besides, such an outline can be modified, reduced or extended to meet contingencies.

Whether text or topical outline, therefore, is a matter that depends upon the nature of the texts to be found, the strength and maturity of the students, the nature and purposes of the course, and the condition and office force of the teaching body. Where a text is used it should never be by a memoriter process, and it should be supplemented with much collateral reading.

In most subjects, especially with college students, the best results are obtained by the use of well prepared topical outlines and library reading, one or more texts being used as a nucleus. Take for instance the history of education where, as in the university of Nebraska, the membership is made up largely of persons destined to become educational leaders—high school teachers, elementary and high school principals, town and city superintendents—the object should be to give to the student a broad, intelligent view of the fundamental problems of educational thought and practice, to show in a way the evolution of civilization as marked by systems of education.

For such a course there is no single text available. Laurie's *Pre-Christian Education* covers one part well; Davidson's *Aristotle, and History of Education*, another; Monroe's *Source Book of the History of Education* (Greek and Roman), and Compayre's *History of Pedagogy*, still others; and Boone's *Education in the United States* furnishes a fair nucleus for the history of education in this country. These with several other excellent books as a nucleus, supplemented by a set of outlines similar to the

one published in the appendix, will furnish the material for an interesting and profitable course in the history of education covering three or four hours per week for one year.

Where the texts or references cover the same thought or period they should be read by different members of the class. Thus each student has read something bearing on every topic, and by means of the class recitation he has obtained the additional thoughts gained by others.

The work in child study is presented in much the same manner as that in the history of education. The purposes of the introductory course as at present offered are: (1) through the use of the library, to familiarize the student with the more important literature on the subject; (2) through introspection, and brief studies of children, to acquaint the student with the natural tendencies in human (child) nature; (3) how to apply this knowledge to best advantage in the education of children. The subject of child study is so new in its present form that it would be difficult to write a suitable text, but with topical outlines which can be modified or reconstructed from year to year to include new material and meet the growing needs of the subject, the lack of a good text is not a serious one.

CHILDREN'S DRAWINGS, OUTLINES 24 AND 25.

The spontaneous drawings of children afford one of the best means of studying the workings of the child mind. It is surprising that this key to child nature has not received greater attention. A few quite interesting studies have been made, and Jas. Sully has devoted a chapter to this subject in his late work, "Studies of Childhood," showing the similarity of the early drawings of children and those of primitive man. These studies (see under references) are quite valuable, and yet they are only beginnings. They show that in drawing children pass through similar stages to those of the race.

That children in their earlier drawings are more or less anthropomorphic, and usually begin with that part of the subject with which the artist ends, *i. e.*, with man.

Note the artistic evolution of man, as seen in the illustrations given by Sully, and account for the order.

Children think in wholes ; but while the adult's whole is the man, the child's whole is an ear, an eye, or a hand. At first any scribble or scrawl made by the child represents to him the object he has in mind. Gradually, as he accidentally hits upon a more fortunate stroke, which suggests to him an object, it is at once accepted as the proper symbol.

To a child drawing begins as a gesture language, a means of expression. He draws from memory, not from observation. He sees the head of a boy at the window, he knows the entire body must be there, so completes the missing parts. A model is placed before him, he glances at it, turns away and draws from memory an image of it.

One difference between the drawings of a child and those of an adult, is that the latter represents artistically an instantaneous photograph, while the former describes in a single picture a series of photographs.

Mrs. Louise Maitland, who has made careful study of children's drawings, gives three fairly distinct stages, corresponding to different ages : (1) From six to about nine years of age is the age of illustration, when children respond eagerly with drawings illustrating scenes of their own lives, or scenes of stories told or read ; (2) from ten to twelve, when children, though still interested in illustrating, are far more interested in making sketches of every-day objects ; (3) from twelve onward, when the whole interest of the child seems directed toward accurate work, to represent with fidelity geometrical, decorative designs, figures from life and casts, landscapes and objects about them. In the first stage the child's spontaneous drawings were free from geometrical designs, dealing almost exclusively with the pictures of men, women and children, animals, houses and trees, while at fifteen and sixteen geometrical drawings predominate.

From these studies it would seem that we are not following the order of natural development in our teaching of drawing. Are the natural tendencies in the child's development right and to be en-

couraged, or are they wrong and to be held in check, or diverted by other standards imposed by the philosophy of man? In either case we must know what the natural tendencies are in order to accomplish the best results.

What is the purpose of instruction in drawing, to cultivate a love for the beautiful, to make artists, or to give an additional means of expression? Whatever the view, are we succeeding? Judging from the different interests of the child in drawing, what plan of instruction should be followed? What advantage is gained in following nature? What use of drawing can be made in nature study? How do you account for children becoming more timid in drawing as they grow older? When would you begin the grammar of drawing? Suggestions for study and the teaching of drawing are omitted.

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COURSE IN METHODS

Take one further illustration, that of the course in methods of instruction, which does not include the courses in special method given

by the departments having control of the academic subjects, the manner of treatment will vary greatly. But considering the maturity of the students and the responsible positions to which many will be called, the writer believes that he can serve their interest best by assisting them to understand the philosophy and fundamental principles that underlie all method. For this purpose he divides the work of each subject into three steps: (1) a critical study of the historical development of the various methods that have been used in the teaching of the subject, including the reasons for the change of method; (2) an examination and criticism of the methods now in use; (3) one or two lectures from various members of the faculty with reference to the best methods of teaching their subjects in secondary schools. Each of the elementary and high school subjects is gone over in this way and the material condensed for the enlightenment of all. Early in the course every member makes selection of a subject, usually the one he will afterwards teach, to which he devotes special attention (about half of his required preparation-time), working up the subject in a careful manner according to points 1 and 2. Near the close of the semester he gives the results of his special study in a well prepared paper for the benefit of others. From the class-work and his general reading he obtains a fair idea of the underlying principles of method, and from his special study he becomes quite familiar with the methods used in teaching his subject and their relative value. He is thus enabled to select the best method for himself and to modify it as conditions warrant. The lectures by members of the faculty regarding the best methods of teaching the subject, come at a time when the students have given the subject considerable thought, hence are more effective. These lectures by the professors have also the secondary effect of keeping the university instructors in closer touch with high school needs.

The study of the historical development of the method of teaching various subjects of study is a profitable one for advanced students who are looking forward to the profession of teaching; far more important in the judgment of the writer than an equal amount of drill on a particular method. We submit below the outline on beginning reading taken from the set on methods of instruction, omitting the bibliography.

BEGINNING READING.

Preliminary considerations.

1. Importance of the subject.
 - (a) A key to the store-houses of knowledge.
 - (b) The foundation of successful work in other subjects.
 - (c) A valuable aid to independent and original thinking.
 - (d) Aids moral judgments by giving correct interpretations of thought.
2. Poorly taught and why.
 - (a) Ignorance of the end in view.
 - (b) Force of habit in continuing methods once used.
 - (c) Tendency of teachers to seek methods requiring least effort.
 - (d) Lack of intelligence in adapting the exercises to the needs and the capacity of the child.
 - (e) The present low estimate placed upon the importance of reading and the inability of most teachers to read well.
3. Nature of the problem.
 - (a) Three points to be considered: the idea, the sound by which it is represented, and the symbol or printed word.
 - (b) These are variously combined, as idea plus sound, as in speaking; sound plus idea, as in listening; idea plus sign, as in writing; sign plus idea, as in silent reading; sign plus idea plus sound, as in oral reading.
 - (c) The child knows many words by sound but not by sight.

- (*d*) The first stage in reading is largely a mechanical (formal) process; the second, more of a thought process, *i. e.*, a stage in which most attention is given to the acquisition of new forms, and a stage in which these forms become lost in the thought itself. Before the child can read he must know words at sight. At first, most attention must be given of necessity to form, or word recognition, but as the knowledge of the forms of words (sight vocabulary) increases more and more, attention can be given to the content.
4. To economize time and enable the child to read intelligently and well.
- (*a*) Arrange the work in accordance with the interests and natural development of the child.
- (*b*) Simplify by bringing in but few new elements at a time.
- (*c*) Bring into play as many senses as possible.
- (*d*) Repeat often by varying the thought.
5. Different methods of teaching reading.
- I. Synthetic method.
- Starting with letters, syllables or sounds, and gradually building up words.
- (*a*) Alphabetic method.
Learning to recognize letters by names and uniting the letters to make words.
- (*b*) Syllabic method.
Meaningless syllables are pronounced as a foundation for reading.
- (*c*) Phonic method.
The ordinary powers of the letters are given first with the thought that the uttering of the sounds of the letters of a word rapidly gives the sound of the word.
- (*d*) Phonetic method.
Similar to the above, with the exception that each of the ordinary letters is given but a single sound.

New letters being added to supply the deficiency.

II. Analytic method.

Beginning with words, phrases or sentences, and later coming to the parts through analysis.

(a) Word method.

Words are considered the unit of thought and recognized first as wholes.

(b) "Look and say" method.

Words are recognized by their look as wholes and pronounced without reference to the letters composing them.

(c) Objective or Pictorial method.

Where either the object or illustrative drawings are used to enliven the interest and quicken the process of word and thought getting.

(d) Sentence method.

Here the sentence is considered the unit of thought and made the basis of teaching reading, and by analysis, of teaching words.

III. Phono-analytic methods are various combinations of the above methods.

Pollard Synthetic Method.

(a) Rational method.

A word and phonic method.

(b) Thought method.

From the first the principal stress is placed upon the thought, which is always kept prominent. The object being to help the child realize that reading is thought getting.

6. The evolution of the methods of teaching reading and its significance.

It was a common practice with oriental people to teach reading by committing words and even whole books to

memory without first knowing their meaning. The Hindu boy learned the alphabet by heart and some ten or twenty pages of Sanskrit before understanding a word. The Greek Sophists were the first to make a proper analysis of the alphabet, probably 400 B. C. After the acquisition of letters the child passed to the study of syllables and syllabizing, and then to beginning reading.

7. Criticisms of the various methods, including reasons for using some form of the word or sentence method or better a combination of the word, sentence, and phonetic methods; taken up in the order named and after the first few weeks used mutually to enforce one another.
 - (a) The child first sees things as wholes.
 - (b) Words are the units of ideas. Words, phrases and sentences are the units of thought. Letters are but parts of the forms of words, and are more complex to the child than the word itself.
 - (c) Drill in rapid recognition of the words is not reading, but a valuable aid to it. Word getting should never be confused with thought getting.
 - (d) More depends upon the teacher than the method.
8. When shall reading be taught?
 - (a) Shall we accept the views of Patrick, Henderson, and others, deferring reading until after ten?
 - (b) Why reading should not be deferred to a later period.
 - 1st. It is the key to nearly all other school studies, and the means through which the child can help itself.
 - 2d. By the accumulated experiences of the race it has become a natural process.
 - 3d. Children of five and six are especially interested in the names of things, and have better memories for mere words than children of ten and twelve.
 - 4th. Children enjoy drill and are benefited by it, if it is intelligently applied.

5th. The plasticity of the child's mind and its freedom from extraneous material makes it easier to acquire the mechanics of reading then, if wisely presented, than at any other time. (But a study of form or technique as such should be reserved in all subjects until a later period.) The development of the senses should be such as to mutually enforce each other.

9. The aim.

Good reading consists, first, in the ready and accurate interpretation of the printed page, and second, in the natural and clear expression of the thoughts thus obtained.

10. The school reader.

- 1st. It should be carefully graded and adapted to the interest and comprehension of the children.
- 2d. It should be stimulating to the imagination and elevating in tone.
- 3d. It should represent ideas of industry, persistence, courage and honesty in the form most easily comprehended by the child, and tend to increase the child's love for the beautiful and true.
- 4th. Its selections should represent complete wholes of thought and possess literary merit.
- 5th. The material should have permanent value, and be of sufficient interest to hold the attention of the child. In thought it should be progressive.

There are many excellent books to select from. I need only mention *The Baldwin Readers*, *The Cyr Readers*, the *Werner Readers*, the *Primers* and 5 and 10 cent *Classics of the Educational Publishing Co.*, *Stepping Stones to Literature*, *Silver, Burdett and Company*, and *Ward's Rational Method Readers*.

PRACTICE-
TEACHING

Another problem which is attracting much interest and no small amount of anxiety on the part of professors of education, is that of obser-

vation and practice-teaching. How shall university students, who are preparing to become teachers, obtain actual experience in teaching? Shall it be under intelligent supervision and direction while yet connected with the university, or shall it be obtained wholly independently after they leave the university? In the latter case it is often difficult for them to obtain the positions for which they are best adapted, and discouragements are sure to follow, which many times prove fatal.

School officers are loath to employ teachers who have not had experience, and this is becoming more general even for the less desirable positions. Scholarships, maturity, sound judgment and professional ability are often turned aside for experience in teaching which may mean much or little according to whether it has been wisely directed and intelligently performed.

HIGH SCHOOL
TEACHERS
REQUIRE LESS
PRACTICE-
TEACHING

It is the prevailing opinion of professors of education, an opinion with which the writer fully agrees, that secondary teachers, in preparation, require less drill in practice-teaching than do elementary teachers, some going so far as to question the advisability or necessity of any practice-teaching on the part of secondary teachers, though those who hold the latter view are largely in the minority.

The reasons for thinking that less drill is required of secondary than of elementary teachers are quite apparent. It is generally conceded that the high school teacher should have at least a full college preparation. This requires time, maturity, and a certain degree of culture. Hence, the reasons might be stated as those of greater scholarship and maturity, broader culture and more pronounced professional training upon which to base intelligent judgments for action.

Again, the nature of the problem is different; the methods of the high school differ less from the methods of the college,

with which the student is familiar; the ways of high school students are more those of adult ways than are those of primary pupils, and it is easier for the adult to put himself into touch with his high school experiences than with his earlier primary experiences.

High school teaching is of necessity more individualistic than elementary teaching, and the methods have not, and probably can not, become so well established and efficient as those in primary education. High school students are better able to help themselves; hence primary teaching is a more delicate art than secondary teaching and requires greater skill in preparation. It is also true that a larger number of college and university students who are looking forward to the teacher's profession have already had some experience in teaching, and consequently have less need of practice.

There are other reasons not so apparent, which probably suggest themselves to the reader, why secondary teachers in the course of preparation need less drill in practice than elementary teachers. But a large majority of those who have had anything to do with the supervision and training of teachers are of the opinion that secondary teachers need a certain amount of practice-teaching under skillful direction. A few would go further, and say that they required as much practice under direction as elementary teachers.

HOW IS	Granting that practice-teaching is a requi-
PRACTICE-	site in the professional training of secondary
TEACHING	teachers, the question that immediately arises
TO BE	is, How can it be obtained? This is a difficult
OBTAINED?	question to answer. So much depends upon

the environment and the opportunities which it offers. Even normal schools—the great centers for the training of elementary teachers—are all at sea regarding the solution of this problem. Mr. A. P. Hollis, who made a study of "Practice Teaching in State Normal Schools," says:

"For convenience of reference, the syllabus divided all practice departments into four classes, as follows:

"Case I. Practice Department includes all public schools of the town.

"Case II. Practice Department consists of a ward school or schools not on the Normal School grounds, the arrangement being authorized by the city board of education.

"Case III. Practice Department is in Normal school building or grounds, pupils being sent to it by authority of city board.

"Case IV. Practice Department is in Normal school building or grounds, and no arrangement existing with the city, pupils attending from preference of parents."

He says further: "At the present writing, Case IV. is far and away the favorite form of practice departments among all types of Normal schools, large and small, east and west."¹

Turning to university departments of education, we find somewhat similar arrangements for practice-teaching, but probably with less consensus of opinion regarding the merits of any one plan. In universities still retaining preparatory departments, or fitting schools, some opportunity is offered through these for observation and practice. In other universities, as in the University of California, city or ward schools have been designated by the school board for this purpose; in some instances the university authorities are made responsible for the employment of the teachers. In still other universities there are both model and experimental schools supported, controlled, and conducted by university authority, as in the University of Chicago and in Teachers College Columbia University. In these institutions the model school (Horace Mann School in the latter) represents all grades, beginning with the kindergarten and including

¹ Ped. Sem., 8: 496, 508.

the college, thus affording complete opportunity for observation of the most efficient teaching.

Then there is the plan at Harvard University, where the department of education has arranged with a number of suburban towns and cities to furnish students with observation and substitute teaching under the immediate direction of the local school superintendent. To this may be added the plan found at Brown University which has already been partially described in Chapter III. It is more fully described in a recent catalogue (1901-02) as follows: "By special arrangement with the School Committee of the city of Providence, student-teachers are appointed to places in the Providence high schools. Appointments are made from members of the senior class who have pursued the undergraduate courses in education. These student-teachers are of two types. Those of the first type—of which there are at least six (three of each sex)—under the guidance and direction of experienced teachers, have the control and conduct of classes. The time required each day is somewhat more than half the usual school session. They receive from the city \$400 for their services for the year. Those of the second type are occupied in a similar way for from three to five hours a week. They receive no remuneration from the city. An unusual opportunity is thus afforded student-teachers to gain a thorough knowledge of the theory of education and at the same time practical experience in the art of teaching. In making appointments to places as teachers of the lowest grade in the Providence high school, preference is given to those who have successfully accomplished the course as student-teachers. In this respect student-teachers of the second type have the same status before the committee that makes appointments as those of the first type."

This has the appearance of an efficient plan, especially when the university is situated in or near a city large

enough to give the needed practice without interfering with the regular school work. The plan is somewhat similar to that employed in the University of Nebraska, which is outlined below.

ARRANGEMENT
FOR OBSER-
VATION AND
PRACTICE IN
THE UNIVER-
SITY OF
NEBRASKA

By an arrangement with the public school authorities of Lincoln, the university students are given opportunity for observation and practice under direct supervision, covering both elementary and high school grades. In order to obtain this privilege the student must have reached the rank of senior and be within one year of the requirements for the university teacher's certificate. During this year of practical school experience the students carry on their university work as usual, with probably few interruptions. In the department of education, during the first semester they take the course in systems of education, and the second semester they take the course in school supervision and management. These courses are made to supplement and strengthen their observation and practice work.

Partly for their convenience, and partly on account of their strength, the students are divided into two classes: cadets and student-teachers. The former give attention only to observation of the regular school work and to the assisting of the regular teacher in the class work; the latter, in addition to the work of cadets, are called upon as substitutes, or supply teachers, to fill temporary vacancies. Cadets receive no pay, but student-teachers, when supplying, receive pay at about one-half the usual salary.

There are fifteen public school buildings in the city, to each of which may be assigned one or more cadets or student-teachers, depending upon the size of the building and the number of students registering for practice work. Students visit the building to which they have been assigned

at least twice a week, spending two hours on each visit. They report to the principal for duty, and are sent by her to one of the rooms, where they make themselves useful by assisting the teacher in the seat and class work of the pupils, in distributing material, etc. In this way they become familiar with the general plan of the school work, with the names of most of the pupils; so that, when later they are called upon to supply temporarily the place of any teacher in the building to which they have been assigned, they feel at home, and the pupils look upon and respect them as regular employees or teachers. Consequently their success is more assured, and they gain experience under the most favorable conditions. The student-teacher obtains the needed practice and the school board the most efficient service that can be procured for the outlay. When two or more students are assigned to the same building, they arrange to have their visits come at different hours.

The position of student-teacher calls for more responsibility than that of cadet, since the former may be called upon at any time to supply in the building to which he has been assigned, though the supply work of any student-teacher will probably not exceed ten days per year. This may seem to be an insufficient amount of practice-teaching, but when taken in connection with the cadet work, which is carried on faithfully throughout the year, it becomes exceedingly valuable, and is accepted by the school board as equivalent to two years of ordinary school experience.

To aid in giving strength and additional meaning to the course in observation and practice, the city superintendent, Dr. C. H. Gordon, has been appointed university lecturer on school supervision and given the practical direction of the cadets and student-teachers.

The above plan of observation and practice has been in operation for the past two years, and while there are a few

weak places that need strengthening, it has proved in the main thoroughly satisfactory. The students feel that they are doing work that is really worth while, and the school authorities receive, as well as furnish, benefit by the arrangement.

A limited number of advanced students who are carrying fewer hours of university work are employed as regular assistants to the ward principals, and as assistants and readers in the high school. They give daily service, and receive pay for the same at the rate of twenty-five cents per hour. This furnishes additional opportunity for experience in teaching, but it is of necessity limited to a small number of strong students who have sufficient time at their disposal.

CHAPTER VI

THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF ELEMENTARY AND OF SECONDARY TEACHERS COMPARED

EVERY one who is familiar with the nature of the professional training of teachers in Germany, is aware of the specific differences made in the training of elementary and of secondary teachers. There is but little in common. The great bulk of the instruction tends to make a distinct gulf between the fields of elementary and of secondary education. The training which the elementary teacher receives, while probably well adapted to its purpose, really unfits him for entrance upon, or success in, secondary education.

In this country there is not that marked distinction made between elementary and higher education, the purposes of the one not being clearly distinguished from those of the other. Likewise in the professional training of teachers, there has been little or no distinction made in the preparation, regardless of the field upon which the candidate is to enter.

We have shown in another chapter how the state normal schools, created for the distinct purpose of preparing elementary teachers, naturally enlarged their curricula to meet the demands for more efficient secondary teachers. It was simply the natural operation of the law of supply and demand. But this has tended to make the professional training of all teachers the same without regard to their future field.

Later, when state universities took up the problem of the

professional training of teachers, the same law of supply and demand influenced them to make the same training answer for both elementary and secondary teachers. Hence it is that we find in the same classes in the history of education, methods of instruction, etc., students, some of whom are preparing to become teachers in the elementary, and others in secondary education. Is this according to well-established pedagogical principles?

IS THERE A
DIFFERENCE
IN THE
METHOD?

The main problem which has been raised for consideration in this chapter, therefore, may be stated as follows: Is there sufficient difference in the methods to be pursued in elementary and secondary education to make a noticeable difference in the preparation of teachers for the one field or the other? If there is a difference, in what does it consist?

Since the establishment of departments of education in colleges and universities, and the more general spread and development of public high schools, there has been a growing feeling that the professional preparation of elementary and secondary teachers should take place in different classes, if not in different institutions. On this point Dr. William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education, says: "I have tried to set down in this paper the grounds for commending the normal school as it exists for its chosen work of preparing teachers for the elementary schools, and at the same time urging the need of training schools with different methods of preparation for the kindergarten below, and for the secondary school, the college, and the post-graduate school above the elementary school."¹

For the purpose of discovering how general is the thought, that there should be *different methods of preparation* for elementary and secondary teachers, the writer submitted the

¹ The Future of the Normal School, by Dr. W. T. Harris, *Educational Review*, January, 1899.

above questions to the presidents of the various state normal schools, and to the professors of education in colleges and universities.

The questions were sent out in the spring of 1900, and were so worded as to obtain the individual views of this large body of educators who above all others should be able to speak with authority upon the subject. Most of them have, no doubt, given to the question much serious thought. Many of them have been engaged for years in the professional training of teachers, and have thus been in positions to make intelligent observations.

The first question might be answered by the definite yes, or no, and in many cases that was the form in which the answer was given. Returns were obtained from 108 presidents of state normal schools and 52 professors of education in colleges and universities. As will be seen, the returns were quite general, representing all parts of the United States, and furnishing sufficient material upon which to base intelligent judgments.

To facilitate comparison, the results which follow are given in per cent.

In answer to the question, Is there sufficient difference in the methods to be pursued in elementary and secondary education to make a noticeable difference in the preparation of teachers for the one field, or the other? 34 per cent. of the state normal school presidents answered in the affirmative and 66 per cent. answered in the negative. Of those answering in the affirmative 8 per cent. qualified their answers, and of those answering in the negative 20 per cent. qualify their answers. To illustrate: "Yes, if methods, as used above, include course of study and training in teaching."¹ "Yes, in the different emphasis to be laid on *methods*

¹ D. J. Waller, Jr., Prin. State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.

in comparison with principles of teaching."¹ Or: "No, but there are practical difficulties here in Massachusetts which settle the question for our normal schools."² "No, unless it be in scholarship."³ "No, methods are methods for all, and are best mastered with elementary work and elementary pupils."⁴ "No, principles are the same, teaching different; the teacher of small children makes more use of devices."⁵ "I do not; the same psychology and philosophy underlie both."⁶ "No; the theory of education in high school teaching is not very different from that of elementary education, yet there is a treatment of the subject of a higher order because of the development of the pupil that calls for a different adaptability of the work."⁷

By far the larger number of affirmative answers came from the following states in about the order named: Vermont, California, Wisconsin, Minnesota, West Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts. These states furnished 90 per cent. of the affirmative replies and less than 20 per cent. of the negative ones. It is interesting to note that in most of these states the school law requires that the high school teacher be a college graduate.

In response to the above question, 82 per cent. of the professors of education in colleges and universities answered in the affirmative, being of the opinion that there is a difference in the methods to be used in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers; 18 per cent. thought there is no difference, or if a difference it is slight. Most of

¹ Edward Conant, Prin. State Normal School, Johnson, Vt.

² Chas. S. Chapin, Prin. State Normal School, Westfield, Mass.

³ John M. Milne, Prin. State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y.

⁴ Francis B. Palmer, Prin. State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y.

⁵ C. L. Hayes, Prin. State Normal School, De Funiak Springs, Fla.

⁶ W. M. Stewart, Prin. State Normal School, Salt Lake City, Utah.

⁷ H. H. Seerley, Pres. State Normal School, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

those who answered in the affirmative were decided in their opinions. A few, however, in both classes qualified their answers: as "Yes, there is a difference, but the danger perhaps lies in insisting on it too much;"¹ "Not as regards their professional training;"² "There is no such difference as is meant by those who would arbitrarily mark off one part of the work of preparing teachers for one class of schools and another part for another class of schools;"³ "Yes, if by the word methods one means everything that pertains to secondary work;"⁴ "Under proper conditions, no, under present conditions, yes;"⁵ "Yes, the difference consists largely in additional secondary training."⁶

REASONS FOR
DIFFERENCE IN
METHOD.

If there is a difference in the methods to be used in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers, in what does it consist?

As might have been anticipated, most of those who responded to the first question with the statement that there is no difference, omitted the second question regarding the nature of the difference. A few of these, however, responded to the second question giving the reasons for their faith.

In this connection we are interested most, to be sure, in the thought of those who believe that there is a difference. Nevertheless we present a few of the negative views along with many affirmative ones in order to give greater variety and clearer setting. We quote first from the replies of normal school principals, and later from professors of education in colleges and universities.

¹ W. G. Smith, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.

² R. N. Roark, Kentucky State College, Lexington, Ky.

³ J. J. McConnell, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

⁴ D. R. Majors, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

⁵ D. E. Phillips, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado.

⁶ Arthur Allin, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

We realize that this subject is one upon which public opinion is rapidly changing, and since the quotations given below were obtained in the spring of 1900 they may not in all cases represent the writers' present views.

VIEWS OF NORMAL SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "There is no difference, as I understand it, in the principles of methods to be pursued, but there must be a difference in the amount of work done per day and to some extent in what is done, since allowance must be made for the age of pupils taught. Higher scholarship should, of course, be required of those who are preparing themselves for secondary work."¹

"A different set of tools, the principles are the same. There is work to be done in adding skill in application of the same principles, and normal schools do not generally get time to secure this for secondary instruction."²

"There should be a review of the common branches by one expecting to teach them, in the light of higher studies. Extended and continuous practice is more necessary for those in the elementary stage."³

"If a man or woman can successfully instruct the youth of our public schools, he has mastered the art of arts well enough to teach anywhere. I must dissent from the able authority referred to."⁴

"Such a proposition is arrant nonsense. That dogma is already the prevailing notion of ignorant people. It is already in operation. Discrimination in favor of the high school has done irreparable injury by turning over the grammar school boys and girls to a race of stupid, insipid, lifeless women who are incapacitated for all teaching."⁵

¹ John M. Milne, Prin. State Normal School, Geneseo, N. Y.

² Francis B. Palmer, Prin. State Normal School, Fredonia, N. Y.

³ D. J. Waller, Jr., Prin. State Normal School, Indiana, Pa.

⁴ L. J. Corbly, Prin. Marshall College, Huntington, W. Va.

⁵ John R. Kirk, Prin. State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.

"There is a great difference between the play of the kindergarten and the systematic, self-directed, and strong work of a well-trained senior of a secondary school. The gradual change of work from lowest primary to highest secondary corresponds with the needed change in methods of teaching, and creates the difference in extremes. It seems too much for the normal school to try to cover the field of thirteen grades successfully. Let there be a division of work, giving six years to the secondary class, and the normal school will still have enough work. Training for primary work is not the best training for secondary. The difference is sufficiently noticeable to warrant two classes of training schools."¹

"One essential qualification of any teacher, in my mind, is an intimate and personal knowledge of the beings he is to teach. Secondary teachers deal chiefly with adolescents; elementary teachers with pupils before they have reached the adolescent period. Because of this fact there *should be considerable difference* in the training of elementary and secondary teachers. Elementary teachers should constantly study and be in the presence of children of the ages they are to teach. They should become as intimate with children of these ages as may be possible in the school-room, on the play-ground, and even in the home. Secondary teachers, on the other hand, should have the same relations with older children, or adolescents. As far as subject-matter goes, elementary teachers should have just as good an education as secondary teachers."²

"The chief difference consists in the different methods that must be used in the different grades, due to the process of mental development in the child. Of course, the division of elementary and secondary education is arbitrary, but, in

¹ Walter E. Ranger, Prin. State Normal School, Johnson, Vt.

² John G. Thompson, Prin. State Normal School, Fitchburg, Mass.

general, it represents the beginning of the period of adolescence, when the child's mental activity and capacity are greatly accelerated. Hence, the methods must be changed considerably."¹

"The difference consists in the greater emphasis which should be placed upon the empiric methods in the lower grades and the rational in the upper."²

"I think there is no doubt that Dr. Harris expresses an important truth in his analysis of the subject of methods for the different grades of educational work. At the same time, it is impossible to draw hard and fast lines that will separate secondary school work from grade work, on the one hand, in its method, or from the university, on the other hand, in *its* method. Following the principle that a teacher of any grade should have mastered the subject-matter of the next educational step beyond that in which he is teaching, I believe that it is equally true that any teacher's knowledge and appreciation of methods of work should include the methods to be used in the grades of educational work both above and below that in which he is teaching."³

"The difference is determined by the difference of mind of pupils taught. Pupils in elementary schools are seven to fifteen years old; in secondary schools from thirteen to twenty. The mental development of the two groups varies widely."⁴

"In the instincts that develop at these periods. Secondly, the scholarship of normal graduates quite unfits them as teachers in secondary schools."⁵

¹Chas. B. Dyke, Head of Normal Department, Hampton, Va.

²W. H. Cheever, Pres. State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

³Geo. R. Kleeberger, Pres. State Normal School, St. Cloud, Minn.

⁴Geo. A. McFarland, Prin. State Normal School, Valley City, N. Dakota.

⁵Frederick Burk, State Normal School, San Francisco, Cal.

"The difference between the child and the adolescent. For both some principles are alike, many are different."¹

“The fundamentals are the same in both cases; the nature of the being to be educated, the means in view of that nature, the environment, and the principles of education.”²

"The fundamentals are the same in either case. The difference is mainly in the practice, which should ever be subordinate to a comprehension of, and even a saturation with, the fundamentals."³

"The difference consists for the most part of the methods of instruction to be followed. Without going into particulars, I may say that the proper adjustment of inductive and deductive teaching for the grades, and especially the lower grades, is not the same thing as the proper adjustment for the secondary schools."⁴

"One special difference is that the secondary teachers should give special attention to the psychology of adolescence. The study of adolescence should hold the same place in the preparation of the secondary teacher, that child study does in that of the elementary teacher."⁵

"The fundamental difference is a difference between the classes of students, necessitating a difference in the treatment of the subject matter. The difference between the students is a difference in scholarship and corresponding mental power. The secondary school teacher should always be a college graduate. The elementary need not be. This difference renders it impossible to address the same instruc-

¹ C. C. Van Liew, State Normal School. Chico, Cal.

² Julia E. Buckley, formerly of Chicago University.

³ D. E. Phillips, University of Denver, Col.

⁴ B. A. Hinsdale, late of the University of Michigan.

⁵ W. H. Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

tion in scope and in intensity to both classes of students at the same time."¹

"*In addition* to what the elementary teacher needs, the secondary teacher needs the broad general culture best secured by a college education and *high professional training*, as high as the best professional training in law and in medicine."²

"The elementary teacher cannot afford to do without child study, and should be familiar with kindergarten method, even though she has not a special kindergarten training. The primary teacher should have a great deal of practice work in her preparation, and should know something of a large number of subjects, while she does not need to be a specialist in any. The secondary teacher has not the same use for child psychology, does not need to know so much of the kindergarten methods, and will probably succeed with less practice work."³

"The child needs more guidance and help. The subject matter must be adapted in a far greater degree for children. In giving instruction it is more important to know the full psychic personality of children than of grown-up people. In primary work the minds of teacher and pupil are not so nearly on parity with each other."⁴

"The basis of education is different. Secondary instruction and education should recognize the existence of adolescence, which has little importance in primary schools. There is a different individual outlook, hence the work should be in the hands of teachers who have been trained for secondary education."⁵

¹ Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

² A. F. West, Princeton University, N. J.

³ Celestia S. Parrish, Randolph Macon Woman's College, Lynchburg, Va.

⁴ T. C. Karns, formerly University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

⁵ A. H. Yoder, University of Washington, Seattle.

"There is essential similarity on principles and methods for all schools; but in practice, those preparing to teach in high schools have studied longer, have in general perhaps more ability and higher aspirations, that pedagogy with them may be treated in a much more advanced way. There are besides, of course, differences between elementary schools and high schools in subjects, history, general social function, so as to make high school pedagogy a distinct subject."¹

"Methods suitable to children fail when applied to boys and girls passing into adolescence. The awakening man and woman need different treatment than that suitable for children."²

"We all tend to project ourselves into others; we naturally teach others in the way in which we think we would best learn ourselves. Now, the mind of the pupil in the secondary school works in the same way, in essential respects, as the mind of the adult; while the same is not so true of the mind of the child in the first grades. It is a very different problem to guide a mind attacking arithmetic for the first time from what it is to direct it when it is mastering geometry in the high school. The first grade pupil is on such a different plane with respect to practically all he has to learn from the adult who teaches him, that long and careful study is required to give the teacher that knowledge which can make his teaching appropriate and efficient. I would not say that there is such a difference in method in its essential principles as in the knowledge in the mind of the pupil which is required for intelligent understanding on the part of the teacher."³

¹ John A. Bergstrom, Indiana University, Bloomington.

² S. D. Brooks, University of Illinois, Champaign.

³ M. V. O'Shea, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

"Secondary school students are more intelligently self-conscious as a rule. Consequently they view themselves and the world under other categories. They take causal relations among natural phenomena more seriously, and work with a more intelligent sense of the significance of school life to themselves and to others; hence the differences in methods of teaching."¹

"In preparation for elementary schools, training must be prominent, theory and psychology must be concrete. In college the treatment should be historic and philosophical."²

"The difference between elementary and secondary schools is about the same kind of difference that exists between the primary school and the grammar school. Pupils require treatment that is suited to their ages year by year. As a pupil grows older he becomes a stronger person, and his treatment by his teacher should change accordingly.

"It seems to me that the difference of which you are speaking is a sort of arbitrary one which has been assumed, because it seems to meet the exigencies of our system of educational organization. Of course, allowance must be made in school administration for adolescence and other incidents of school life, but these are problems which, I think, are not contemplated in your questions.

"The university can do real university work of high order in fitting teachers for a primary school, and if its circumstances seem to warrant the doing of this kind of work, it ought not to be debarred by the fear of getting into normal school territory."³

"The teacher must know his pupils. One may know pupils of the elementary school years and still be in utter darkness regarding the make-up of high school pupils. I

¹ G. A. Townly, Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.

² D. L. Kiehle, University of Minn., Minneapolis.

³ J. J. McConnell, formerly of the University of Iowa, Iowa City.

am positive that the special training for a high school teacher should be different from that of an elementary teacher."¹

"The widely different psychology of youth of high school age; emotions, ideals, reason, *versus* sense training. The discipline should be *very* different."²

"More special study of early phases of child development for one, and of adolescent phases for the other; each should know both, however."³

"The methods of instruction in secondary schools approximate somewhat more nearly to the methods of scholarly research. The teachers in those schools need to be in closer touch with university research than it is possible for the great body of elementary teachers to be."⁴

"In the quantity of scholarship upon which to base professional training; different kind of knowledge needed; different amounts of the same subject needed, as, for example, in sciences."⁵

"All secondary teachers should have a certain amount of professional training. The science of education, history of education, and the methods of elementary education ought certainly to be a part of their course. In addition, they ought to have a thorough training in secondary educational problems. The difference consists largely in this additional secondary training."⁶

"1. In material to be used, which requires a different method of treatment. 2. In character of the pupils, which

¹ D. R. Major, Ohio State University, Columbus.

² E. G. Lancaster, Colorado College, Colorado Springs.

³ A. Casewell Ellis, University of Texas, Austin.

⁴ Elmer E. Brown, University of California, Berkeley.

⁵ Ellwood P. Cubberly, Leland Stanford University, California.

⁶ Arthur Allin, University of Colorado, Boulder.

requires study of adolescence and kindred topics in psychology."¹

We have quoted somewhat freely from the expressions of those who think that there ought to be a difference in the method of training elementary and secondary teachers, because we have felt that there is sufficient value in the material to prove of interest. We have endeavored to report accurately the thoughts of others upon the subject, in so far as expression has been given, and are ready to assume the responsibility for mistakes of thought or language. The aim has been to give variety of content rather than extension of individual views, the latter being preferred when it could be accomplished without too great repetition. It is thought that the quotations offered cover in the main all the reasons that were advanced for the difference in method.

MARKED
DIFFERENCES
OF OPINION

It is of interest to note the somewhat marked differences of opinion between the normal school principals and the college professors of education. As will be remembered, 66 per cent. of the former were of the opinion that there is not sufficient difference in the methods to be pursued in elementary and secondary education to make a noticeable difference in the preparation of teachers for the one field or the other, while 82 per cent. of the college professors were of the opinion that the difference is sufficiently great to necessitate a difference in the training of the teachers. It has occurred to the writer that the difference of opinion might not have been so pronounced had the matter been referred to professors of psychology and education in normal schools instead of the principals. But there is no doubt that environment has had much to do in shaping individual opinions. Too often it is true, that "whatever is, is right."

¹ Jas. R. Russell, Teachers' College Columbia University, New York City.

Up to the present time in the United States, with the single exception of the kindergarten and a few special institutions, there has been little or no discrimination made in the professional preparation of elementary and secondary teachers, and many people have come to look upon this uniform training as the proper thing. The training must be of a general nature, fitting the student equally well for any and all fields, but properly and efficiently for no field. As many students become teachers without any special preparation, it may be maintained that this general training is better than no training; and so it is, but the time has probably come in which to make the training more specific.

The more important reasons that have been assigned for the differences in the methods of preparation of elementary and secondary teachers, may be stated briefly as follows: (1) an academic difference; (2) a professional difference; and (3) a difference due to the inherent nature of children of different ages.

The academic difference is one of scholarship and specialization, greater maturity of thought and judgment, more strength and ability in working out original problems. This is taking for granted that the secondary teacher is a college graduate and somewhat of a specialist, while the elementary teacher is probably not a college graduate, or if a graduate, has given less attention to specialization.

The professional difference is one that results, in part, from the nature and previous training of the students receiving the instruction, and, in part, from the nature of the future work to which they are to apply the instruction. For instance, no one who is at all familiar with the subject would think of treating the history of education in the same way to classes composed of university seniors on the one hand, and high school graduates or normal school students on the

other, no matter what might be the future aim of the student. Neither is one justified in giving a course on special methods of teaching the various high school subjects to a student in preparation for primary teaching.

The differences which come under this head in the preparation of secondary teachers may be stated as follows: more attention to theory and the general principles of education, and less to practice, empiric methods and devices; more stress placed upon the historical and philosophical treatment of the subject; special method as against general method; with probably less attention given to details and the simplification of processes.

The third difference or that due to the nature of the children to be instructed may be summed up in the difference between the child and the adolescent. The secondary teacher must study the nature of the adolescent as the elementary teacher studies the nature of the child. Each should have a general knowledge of both fields, but the one must be especially familiar with the psychology of childhood, and the other with the psychology of adolescence. The method of the professional training of teachers will naturally be adjusted so as to fit the student most appropriately for the field into which he is to enter.

THE DIFFER-
ENCES IN
METHOD DUE TO
DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN
CHILDHOOD
AND YOUTH

To express the matter in another way, all differences to be observed in the methods of the professional training of elementary and of secondary teachers must rest ultimately in the nature of the child. If there is sufficient difference in the nature and outlook of the child from that of the adolescent or adult to necessitate a different way of approach, and a different method of instruction, then there should be a difference made in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers. But if the child does not differ materially in his general nature

from the adolescent, then it is unnecessary to lay stress upon any difference to be made in the preparation of teachers. Prospective primary teachers may continue with equal propriety in the same professional studies and in the same classes with prospective high school teachers.

We are still too ignorant of the true psychology of childhood and of youth to answer this question finally or even definitely. But the study of children has gone far enough, in late years, to assist us in forming intelligent judgments. These studies indicate that there is a marked difference between the child and the youth, a difference so great as to necessitate a wholly different manner of approach. We have endeavored to express this difference in a form for comparison, but we realize the difficulty of drawing hard-and-fast lines that will truly represent growing individuality, and have given the characterization that follows simply as a suggestion and as an approximation to truth.

PREDOMINANT ELEMENTS AT DIFFERENT PERIODS

Child.

1. Sensation, feeling, doing.
2. Sensory, self-consciousness, *i. e.*, play-activity, in which means and end are one—not separated.
3. Vegetative stage, receptive, retentive, expressive.
4. Physical activity foremost.
5. Imitative, especially in the field of concrete images and events (unconscious imitation), symbolizes.
6. Impulsive, vacillating, attention changeable.
7. Will weak, somewhat passive.
8. Talkative, frank, open.
9. Obedient, submitting to authority.
10. Dependent, confiding, appreciates definite answers.
11. Gathering facts, looking out.
12. Lives in the present, an objective life, memory and imagination deal with the outside world—externalities.
13. Planning for the present; the chief interest ends with the thing itself.
14. Animal instincts, sensation and simple feeling, largely selfish or self-centered.

Youth.

1. Judgment, emotion, willing.
2. Motor self-consciousness, *i. e.*, games and work in which means and end are separate and distinct.
3. Intellectual stage, interested in relations, classifying, harmonizing, unifying.
4. Psychic activity foremost.
5. Higher form of imitation, imitating acts and ideals (conscious imitation) constructive.
6. Thoughtful, more stable, greater concentration of attention.
7. Will strong, persistent, active.
8. Inhibitive, evasive, often morbid.
9. Self-assertive, fretting under restraint, desiring greater freedom.
10. Becoming independent, self-reliant, secretive, doubting, desiring proof, prefers suggestive answers.
11. Relating, classifying facts, introspective, reflective.
12. Looking to the future, a subjective life, memories assimilations sequential, richer and more lasting, imagination deals with events in which the individual plays an important role.
13. Planning for the future, desire of conquest; chief interest not in things, but in their origin and reason for being.
14. Emotional life prominent, sympathy, love, admiration, devotion, worship, esteem; hatred, jealousy, disrespect, contempt; truth, goodness, beauty, virtue; probably altruistic.

There are in the above table some repetitions and overlappings which were made necessary in order to facilitate comparison. Other differences might have been added, but probably a sufficient number have been given to make clear the point under consideration.

The place where childhood ends and youth begins is a continuous rather than a clearly marked line, and yet the characterization given above represents with fair accuracy the great differences in the nature of the child on the one hand, and the youth on the other.

WHAT SHALL BE
THE NATURE
OF THE

What does this suggest regarding the methods of instruction for the child and for the youth?

Child.

1. A formative stage, in which the work of the teacher is chiefly one of instruction, *i. e.*, the orderly and systematic imparting of knowledge.
2. The teaching should be direct, adapted to the needs and interests of the child.
3. Discipline is very different; kind but firm, insistent and uniform, habituating to right action, in part natural punishments, duties made plain and imperative, obedience made a matter of course.

Youth.

1. The stage of orientation, in which the work of the teacher is more one of guidance or assistance in new discoveries and investigations.
2. The teaching should be indirect and suggestive, adapted to the needs and interests of the adolescent.
3. Firm and just, govern by reason and indirection, typical cases of conduct presented as examples of right action, punishments made more a matter of honor, the method more rational, advisory and suggestive, obedience made the most reasonable as well as the most desirable course.

Many more points might be added concerning the different methods of instruction or approach, some of which are even more marked than those already given. But enough have been presented to call forth the question, what then

should be the difference in the training of teachers for elementary and secondary instruction? Supplementary to what has already been said upon this point, let us add the following regarding the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers.

Elementary Teacher.

1. Less extended scholarship, more practice, readier and richer knowledge of the common school branches.
2. More attention given to general methods of teaching the elementary subjects.
3. Methods more empiric, concrete and stable, more guidance for the teacher.
4. More attention given to details and and to devices, greater skill in imparting knowledge, *i. e.*, the period of mechanics and memory, the years in which the child is to become familiar with the tools (forms) of thought.
5. The elementary teacher must become familiar with the physiology and psychology of childhood.

Secondary Teacher.

1. Greater scholarship, less practice, deeper and richer knowledge of an allied group of high school subjects.
2. More attention given to general principles and the special methods of teaching the allied high school subjects.
3. Methods more scientific, historical and varying (individualistic), more stress placed on theory and the understanding.
4. More attention to the generalization and classification of material, greater skill in arousing slumbering (budding) humanity, and inspiring students toward loftier ideals.
5. The secondary teacher must be familiar with physiology and psychology of adolescence.

MEANING OF
EDUCATION

Education has been defined as the process of mental development, or the adjustment of the individual to his environment. But a more complete though somewhat awkward definition is the following: Education is the process of the reconstruction and utilization of experiences by means of which the individual is brought into sympathetic relation with, and given ever-increasing control of, his environment. With this definition before us, teaching becomes the intelligent guidance in this

adaptation; teaching then is, in the truest as well as the broadest sense, character building. To be efficient and vital the teaching must be adapted at all points to the interests, the nature, and the immediate needs of the child who is to be influenced by it. The pupil must feel at every point that what he is doing is worth while. In order to put into operation such teaching, it is necessary to make a specific difference in the methods of the preparation of elementary and of secondary teachers.

FIELDS OF
THOUGHT

The material for mental development naturally covers two fields: the great commercial and industrial subjects—the objective or scientific world; the great literary and culture subjects—the subjective or humanistic world. The one administers most to man's material wants, the other, to his spiritual.

In early school life the child is more interested in the objective world—nature, things, and natural objects. These furnish the key by means of which he becomes familiar with the symbols and forms (tools) of thought.

In secondary education he is better prepared for, if not more interested in, the humanistic world—history, language, literature, and begins to lay the foundation for broad culture and scientific research.

In higher education he naturally limits the field of his activity, selecting one or more subjects from either the scientific or humanistic field. He brings to bear upon them the searchlight of his experiences, and makes them the foundation for further investigations and philosophic thought, the relating and unifying of all experiences.

STAGES OF
MENTAL
DEVELOPMENT

The mental development of the individual covers three important periods: the early formative period, extending from birth to puberty; the period of orientation or mental adjustment, extending from the beginning of puberty to

probably 18; the period of manhood, specialization, and professional life.

The first period is covered by elementary, foundation studies; formative disciplinary work; general information concretely represented. The second is covered by the high school studies; less of form, more of content; a period of relating, adjusting and classifying knowledge; a period of orientation and transition from that of the acquisition of knowledge through instruction to that of the acquisition of knowledge by original research and investigation. The third period is covered by the last years of the college, and the special professional schools. It is the work of specializing for a vocation.

DIFFERENT
METHODS OF
INSTRUCTION

The instructional method, which is best adapted to the education of children, and the laboratory method, or method of scientific research, more suitable for the work of advanced students, have but little in common. They represent the two extremes in the methods of teaching. The high school, representing the transition period, possesses some features belonging to each.

In the elementary school all subjects yield to the instructional method, *i. e.*, the method through which the teacher brings together, in an orderly and systematic arrangement, all the essential material on the subject in the form most easy of acquisition by the learner. In the high school some of the subjects are formative, or disciplinary, and require the instructional method, while other subjects are more a matter of content, mental adjustment, individual effort and discovery, and yield more readily to the laboratory or scientific method, a method in which the student is placed under greater responsibility and given greater freedom for independent action.

The secondary teacher, therefore, must be a master of

both methods. He must be skilled in imparting knowledge when dealing with those subjects, or parts of subjects, in which the material is largely a fixed quantity, with which the student must become familiar. But he must also be a student, master of the tools and the method of research, and capable of interesting and intelligently guiding his students in independent action and original investigations.

Shall there be separate schools for elementary and secondary teachers?

Will the difference in the method of preparation of elementary and secondary teachers require that the professional training be given in separate institutions?

This question is easier to propose than to answer. Under favorable conditions, such as exist at Teachers College Columbia University, probably all the training, both academic and professional, can be given to best advantage in one institution. This would require in many studies separate classes, but not separate institutions.

In colleges and universities, where it is possible to have a large and thoroughly equipped school of education, there are many advantages in preparing teachers for all grades of the public school service. It is certainly much more economical than to have the work of the different grades given in different institutions, and the association of students working along somewhat different lines has a broadening and beneficial effect. But there are only a few institutions that have met the above requirements regarding a school of education. Most universities have only a department of education, limited in equipment to one or two instructors. In such institutions the proper preparation of teachers for all grades is impossible, and it becomes simply a question as to what work can be done to best advantage. This question has been decided in several universities in favor of the training of secondary teachers, other interests remaining subsidiary.

THE MISSION
OF NORMAL
SCHOOLS

Are not normal schools institutions properly equipped for the preparation of teachers for all grades of public school work?

The severest criticism that has been raised against normal schools has been along the line of the shallowness, confidence, self-assurance, and egotism of the teachers they send forth. This criticism has weight only with such institutions as endeavor, with meager equipment, to prepare teachers for all grades of public education, from the kindergarten to the university.

In the judgment of the writer no institutions have been, nor are, of greater service to the public welfare than the normal schools of the United States. They have been an inspiration to the teaching profession everywhere, and have created a public demand for more efficient teachers. Many an educator of world-wide fame is wont to attribute the inspiration which led to his success to his early normal school training. Their strong points far outnumber their weak ones. However, as now constituted, the true mission of the normal school begins and ends with the training of elementary teachers.

Not that normal school professors are insufficiently qualified to give the training most appropriate for secondary teachers, for in many instances the normal school instructors have had equal if not stronger preparation than the best college professors. It is no uncommon occurrence for college professors to be called to normal school chairs and *vice versa*. But the normal schools under their present equipment can not serve both fields well, and it is simply a matter of what they can do best. This question has been decided for them a priori, partly on account of the great need for efficient elementary teachers, partly on account of environment and their nearness to the people, and partly on account of the age and academic qualifications of the

majority of their students, which unfit them for entrance upon the professional training most suitable for secondary teachers.

To the question, "Do you consider it a part of the work of the normal school to prepare teachers for secondary education?" 72 per cent. of the normal school principals answered in the affirmative, and 28 per cent. in the negative. This shows that a large preponderance of the normal school principals, in the 108 state normal schools reporting, feel that it is a part of their duty to make provision in the instruction for the special training of secondary teachers.

In one-half of these institutions special provisions are made for college and university graduates. These provisions consist for the most part in a shortened course, usually one year in length, of purely professional study and no academic requirements. The college graduates, when there are any, recite in their professional studies along with the regular normal students. The reports indicate that but few college graduates take advantage of these courses. Out of 25 institutions reporting in 1899-1900, there were only 52 college graduates in attendance, being an average of about two for each school. A few institutions reported as many as five or six, but many more reported none. One writer says, "Yes, we make special provision for college graduates, but to no purpose. We have never had more than two college graduates in attendance in any one year, and more often none."

Another principal says, "We have a course designed especially to meet the wants of college and university graduates. But in the whole history of this school, not to exceed two or three college graduates have taken advantage of the opportunity afforded."

MISSION OF
DEPARTMENTS
OF EDUCATION

The following counter question was submitted to professors of education in colleges and universities: "Do you consider the pro-

fessional preparation of elementary teachers a proper function of departments of education in colleges and universities, or can that training be given to better advantage in normal schools as now constituted?"

There were fifty-two replies. As will be seen, the question is divided into two parts. In answer to the first part, 42 per cent. of the professors of education were of the opinion that the professional preparation of teachers for elementary schools is a proper function of departments of education in colleges and universities, while 58 per cent. hold a contrary view. In regard to the second part of the question, 74 per cent. of the college professors believe that the professional training of elementary teachers can be given to better advantage in normal schools as now constituted, while 26 per cent. are of the opinion that such training could be given to better advantage in colleges and universities.

A few of these institutions, as Chicago University and Teachers College Columbia University, are thoroughly equipped and well adapted for the training of teachers for all grades of public school work. But the great majority of these colleges and universities are as limited in their equipment for the training of teachers on the one hand as the state normal schools are on the other, and in many cases they are far more limited.

Many persons are of the opinion that the elementary teacher should have the same or equivalent academic training to that required of the secondary teacher; hence the importance of providing for their complete preparation in colleges and universities. It is thought that the environment of the university would be more broadening and elevating in its tone; that elementary students would gain much in their social contact with more advanced students which would be strengthening to them in their teaching;

and that there would be a certain unity and continuity in the work, if teachers for all grades of education were trained in the same school, that would be both helpful and economical.

In accord with the last thought many state normal school men feel that such an institution is already to be found in the state normal school; an institution dedicated to the special purpose of preparing public school teachers. They feel that the professional preparation of secondary teachers would be taken up more seriously, and given more efficiently if offered in normal schools rather than in colleges.

On the other hand, there are many normal school principals and college professors who feel that as a practical problem the work should be divided, the normal schools giving special attention to the training of elementary teachers, and the colleges providing for the training of secondary teachers.

SOME
STATISTICS During the school year of 1899-1900 there were over fifteen million children enrolled in the common schools of the United States. These were taught by 421,000 teachers. In the same year there were 630,000 secondary students, 519,000 of whom were in the public high schools. These secondary students were taught by 30,000 secondary teachers, 20,000 of whom were in the public high schools. This indicates that the division between elementary and secondary teachers in the United States is in proportion of about fifteen elementary teachers to one secondary teacher.

In the same school year the 172 state normal schools graduated 9,000 students. Judging from the best information obtainable, these probably found employment in the public schools in the proportion of ten elementary to one secondary teacher, a ratio which is slightly in favor of secondary positions. Or, to be more exact, the writer obtained data from 27 state normal schools, showing the actual employment of 1,560 of their graduates for the year 1899.

Of these normal school graduates 141, or about 9 per cent., found employment as teachers in the secondary schools; the rest were employed as elementary teachers. This represents a proportion of about eleven to one in favor of elementary teachers, which is probably near the correct ratio for the year 1899. In comparison with the whole number of teachers required in public schools, it is still slightly in favor of secondary employment, *i. e.*, the actual need for elementary and secondary teachers is in the ratio of about fifteen to one, while normal school graduates find employment as elementary and secondary teachers in about the ratio of ten or eleven to one. Some schools represent a much larger per cent. of graduates who find positions as secondary teachers, while other institutions have fewer or none of their graduates thus employed.

In a large majority of the states, public normal school students receive, on graduation, a teacher's certificate, which entitles the holder to teach in any of the public elementary or secondary schools of the state without further examination. This probably accounts, in part, for the large number of normal graduates who find positions as secondary teachers.

It would be interesting if we had the data for comparison showing the school positions that are obtained by university graduates, especially by such graduates as have made special preparation for teaching. Unfortunately, such information is not at hand, but the nearest approach to it is the result obtained from the University of Nebraska. Since the establishment of the university teacher's certificate, in 1897, the proportion has been in the ratio of about eight to one in favor of secondary positions. This may or may not be the true relation. However, excluding such schools as Teachers College, Columbia University, in which special attention is given to the preparation of elementary as well as secondary teachers, it is probably not far from the true relation.

In other words, under present conditions, the public schools of the country are in need of fifteen efficient elementary teachers for every efficient secondary teacher. About 90 per cent. of all the normal school graduates find employment in the elementary schools, while probably between 80 and 90 per cent. of the university graduates who teach find places in the secondary schools, or in supervision where secondary education is involved.

Can colleges and normal schools afford to give attention to the few at the neglect of the many?

EFFECT OF	What would be the effect if normal schools
SEPARATE	gave entire attention to the training of element-
TRAINING	ary teachers, while colleges and universities
SCHOOLS	devoted special attention to the training of

secondary teachers?

Unfortunately, this question was found to be somewhat ambiguous, and consequently did not bring as definite returns as the writer had anticipated. The results, however, are more or less interesting.

In reply to the question, 44 per cent. of the normal school principals thought that the effect would be on the whole injurious; 33 per cent. thought the results would be beneficial; and 23 per cent. were either undecided in their opinions or thought the results would not show any material difference.

The professors of education in colleges and universities were almost equally at variance in their opinions as to the effect of such division of work. 55 per cent. of the college professors thought the results would be beneficial; 34 per cent. thought the effect would be injurious or detrimental; and 11 per cent. were undecided in their opinions. Many are of the opinion that while it would be beneficial and advisable for normal schools to devote their entire attention to the preparation of elementary teachers, it is, nevertheless,

quite proper and essential that colleges and universities make provision for the suitable training of teachers for all grades of public education.

The writer has been especially interested in many of the thoughts expressed by normal school principals and professors of education, some of which are given below.

VIEWS OF NOR- MAL SCHOOL PRINCIPALS FAVORING DIVISION	" Their work would become more definite, better understood, and more efficient through a greater concentration of aim." " It would and does increase its efficiency by focusing its work on a narrower field."
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" I should expect for the normal school increased efficiency and a larger attendance."

" To include the training of secondary teachers, we should need a high school, according to our plan, containing about ten times as many pupils as we had teachers in training. This would not be possible for us now."

" I believe it would tend to strengthen the preparation of elementary teachers."

" One must be made the *important feature* if a given school would succeed financially."

" The schools of this State prepare only for elementary instruction, with a higher grade of instruction for more advanced pupils. Such a division would raise the tone of the work."

" It would be more economical. It would simplify and unify the aim, and solidify the work."

" I think if the state normal schools as they are, in general, constituted, would devote themselves to the work of preparing teachers for the elementary schools; give all their energies in this direction; use all their money to this end; and that, on the other hand, if the universities would establish proper higher pedagogical schools for the preparation of secondary teachers, that the normal school would be very

much more effective in its work; and the pedagogical college in the university would enlarge and grow and become proficient in furnishing properly prepared teachers for secondary schools. Under all circumstances, it is a division of labor that is logical and bound to be productive of good results."

ADVERSE VIEWS "The tendency would be to lower the scholarship in all normal schools. People are slow to understand that a kindergartner should know geometry."

"It would be fatal to the New York State schools."

"It would result, under the 'present educational conditions, in minimizing the dignity of the work of elementary education and unduly emphasize the difference in the grades of work."

"I fear the instruction in normal schools would become very much more elementary."

"It would fill the normal school with plodding non-entities without hope, without energy, and without much ability."

"It would make the normal school superficial and one-sided."

"To deny the normal school a part in the preparation of high school teachers would inevitably tend to lower the standard of the normal school; it would lose in dignity and public estimation. The presence of higher and broader courses in the normal school tends to stimulate and help even those who are taking the shorter courses; and many of those who are preparing for elementary instruction will take the higher courses after they once get started."

"It would largely destroy their ability to do the work. This for several reasons, one of which is that the higher makes both possible and efficient the lower."

"In case the preparation for teachers for secondary education is not accomplished in normal schools, either state

normal schools or university professional schools, the present unsatisfactory condition of secondary teachers, prepared only in a scholastic sense, will continue to exist. If it is assumed, on the other hand, that the state normal schools shall prepare teachers only for the elementary schools and not undertake to impart methods adapted to secondary education, while university professional departments attempt to impart professional instruction and methods adapted only to teachers in secondary schools, we shall then have the anomalous condition now existing, which, to my mind, is extremely unsatisfactory."

"The state normal schools, under their charters and provisions, especially in this part of the country (Iowa), will be granted almost the entire control of the preparation of teachers. Since they are offering pedagogical courses for college graduates, they will likewise do a large amount of work, before very long, in preparing high school teachers."

CHANGE NOT
MATERIAL

"It would not affect the normal school materially, as such a condition practically exists now."

"I should not regard such a division as necessarily detrimental to the success of the school attempting it."

"I cannot see any material change. Proper normal training fits for any kind of teaching, whether in the kindergarten or the university."

"The difference would not be marked. However, with the present low wages and brief tenure, elementary teachers cannot afford to fit themselves also for secondary work. There should be, for a few years at least, many normal schools for the distinct purpose of training elementary teachers alone."

QUOTATIONS
FROM PRO-
FESSORS OF
EDUCATION

"I believe the results would be beneficial, as it would give a greater concentration of aim, put more meaning and definiteness in the instruction."

"I believe it would increase the efficiency of the candidates for both elementary and secondary schools."

"If colleges undertook the work of preparing teachers for elementary schools, it would detract from their success in training secondary teachers. Such a division of work would be highly commendable."

"It is desirable that secondary teachers have a thorough acquaintance with the elementary schools, but the work should be done in separate classes or institutions. There is a different point of view."

"The *main thing*, of course, is for colleges to train secondary teachers. The normal schools are best equipped for the preparation of elementary teachers."

"It would dignify the whole business, and be advantageous all around."

"If colleges were to give as much attention to the preparation of elementary teachers as to the preparation of teachers for secondary schools, the effect, as a rule, would be to lower the grade of work in case of secondary teachers. Normal schools are better fitted to prepare elementary teachers."

"Secondary education would be much more intelligible to a student if he could take a general view, at least, of the work from the bottom up. It does not seem to me necessary, however, to enter in any detail into the training of teachers for elementary schools in order to do efficient work in the training of teachers for secondary schools."

ADVERSE
VIEWS

"Should colleges give attention to the preparation of teachers for elementary schools, it would necessitate on their part a study of the problems of education from a different point of view. It would reveal to them the difference which now exists between the method and practice of teaching in elementary schools and the method and practice of teaching in sec-

ondary schools. They would at length perceive the abrupt change in method, and they might gradually, with great advantage to the elementary school and the secondary school, make the transition in method almost imperceptible."

"It is certainly advisable for normal schools to limit their instruction to the preparation of elementary teachers, but it is not necessary nor advisable to limit colleges in their training to the preparation of secondary teachers."

"The effect, in part at least, would be good. The academic conditions of normal schools no longer prepare their students for secondary teachers, while colleges with their preparatory departments are most favorably situated to prepare teachers for all grades."

"We have found by experience that it is helpful to all, to interest them in the work of the grades, and especially to teach in the grades. We believe that all teachers for secondary schools should know the work below."

"I believe the plan is fraught with danger both for the college and the normal school. To narrow the field would lower the dignity of the work and diminish the size of the classes."

"It would probably have a bad effect by emphasizing the difference between elementary and secondary teachers, and weaken the work in both fields."

"I see no reason to believe that any peculiar effect, harmful or otherwise, would appear provided the quality of the instruction addressed to the students is what it ought to be."

"The college properly equipped ought to do both. I do not see any reason why there should be any detriment because the college assumes the duty of the professional training of elementary teachers."

The question of the advisability of separate training schools for elementary and secondary teachers, or more especially the thought that would limit the normal schools or colleges to a

THE TRUTH
DIFFICULT
TO FIND

narrower field in the training of teachers than is now the usual practice, is one that is surrounded with much sentiment and tradition which are apt to arouse in its discussion considerable feeling and partisan spirit. It is often difficult to give fair consideration to a question that seems to offer in its solution the curtailment of the individual's power and influence.

The commonly expressed thought that any one can teach children, and its equally absurd counterpart, that any college graduate can teach English, are still to be found in but slightly modified form in our best institutions of learning. And kindred to these is the thought quoted above from a normal school principal who says, "Proper normal training fits for any kind of teaching, whether in the kindergarten or in the university." Such men are doubtless honest in their opinions, but they certainly fail to comprehend the true situation. A study of the quotations given above will convince the reader that somebody must be wrong.

Most students of education are aware that there are great differences in individual minds, especially between the attitude of the child and of the youth, which must be met by differences in the method of instruction. City superintendents are likewise aware that some teachers are best adapted for primary work, others for intermediate grades, and still others for the high schools. In imparting information, every true method must be adapted to the nature and intelligence of the individual instructed. That there should be a difference in the requirements for elementary and secondary teachers is quite apparent. But in what way can we give the most effective training to each with the appliances at our command, is the question under consideration.

COLLEGES VS. NORMAL SCHOOLS	Many persons are of the opinion that elementary teachers should have a college education, and hence, that colleges and universities must be better fitted for the training of teachers
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for all grades of public education, even including the elementary, than are the normal schools. This opinion is shared less by professors of education who have given the subject serious thought than by others. But since it is the honest opinion of a number of intelligent people it deserves consideration.

The statistics of state normal schools show that they are still on the increase at a fairly rapid rate. During the past decade there have been 37 new state normal schools established, an average of about four per year. In the year 1900 there were in the United States 172 state normal schools, with a property valuation, including grounds and buildings, of about thirty million dollars. The annual appropriation for that year for buildings and support is given at three million five hundred thousand dollars. Such an accumulation of property and of interest is not the result of a day. Neither could the services of these schools be set aside without seriously crippling the whole educational system.

It would require years for the colleges and universities to become as well fitted for the training of elementary teachers as the state normal schools now are, and all to what purpose?—simply to do the normal work over again. The normal schools might be converted into colleges and the colleges into normal schools, but what would be gained by the change?

Normal schools are admirably fitted by nature, environment, equipment, and teaching force, for the professional training of elementary teachers. In order to enable colleges and universities to perform the work of the training of elementary teachers as successfully, it would be necessary to establish in connection with each institution a separate normal school, with ample provision for the study of the elementary subjects and for practice-teaching, and also with a teaching staff large enough to put the work in operation.

The establishment of such normal departments or schools would be, under many circumstances, a most fortunate thing to do. However, it would simply mean the creation of a new normal school under the favorable environment of a good university.

It is a matter of economy, of practical utility, and of good sense that state normal schools should be given chief responsibility in the training of elementary teachers. It is the problem for which they were created, and for which they are so admirably fitted. The field is large enough and important enough to occupy the best talent that is to be found in the entire country. There is need for many more such schools, and the demand for well trained teachers is sure to increase with the supply.

But notwithstanding the fitness of the normal school for the training of elementary teachers, it is not adapted to the training of secondary teachers. To continue to fool the public in a make-believe policy is wrong. To properly train secondary teachers, the normal school must become in truth a college and modify its methods to meet the needs of high school teachers. To do this would destroy its usefulness for the training of elementary teachers, or necessitate the combining of two separate training schools into one institution.

It is thought by many that to limit the normal schools to the training of elementary teachers, would fill these schools "with plodding nonentities, without hope and without energy." That it would make them "superficial and one-sided," destroy their "dignity and weaken the instruction." It does not seem, however, that these inferences are correctly drawn. Take, for instance, the kindergarten training schools: has it destroyed their dignity or weakened their influence because they have limited their instruction to a narrow but important field? Look at the names that do us honor: Emma Marwedel, Kate Douglas Wiggin-Riggs,

Maria Kraus-Boelte, Eudora L. Hailmann, Elizabeth Harrison, Jenny B. Merrill, Sara E. Wiltse, Lucy Wheelock, Susan Blow, Amalie Hofer, Mary D. Runyan; and we might add twenty more without reducing the quality.

Who will say that such a list of educators is not sufficient refutation to the argument that to narrow and intensify the field—providing it still remains large enough and important enough to be worth while—weakens the output?

The elementary schools cover a much larger and more important field than the kindergarten, but, with the possible exception of primary education wherein the overflow from the kindergarten has influenced the teaching, where in the whole field of elementary education can we find such an array of educational leaders? It is a great honor to be a *good* kindergartner, but it is an equal honor to be a *good* elementary teacher, and there is more need for the latter.

A good kindergarten training school may be connected with a normal school, a college, or a university, and in the judgment of the writer it is fortunate for the training school to be so situated, but in every case it remains a kindergarten still. Its students may all be college graduates, and preferably so, but while in special preparation for their future vocation, they have but little in common with prospective teachers of other departments. They may study many of their academic and a few of their professional subjects in common, but the rest of their studies will lead them into *entirely* different lines. The same condition is equally true of elementary and of secondary teachers; a part of their studies they can mutually share with profit, but the rest of the way they must go in separate paths.

In the judgment of the writer we have
reached a stage in the educational develop-
ment of this country in which it has become
almost imperative for us to demand higher

THE NEED FOR
TRAINED
TEACHERS

qualifications, and more definite and more truly professional training on the part of our teachers. To overlook this need, or to fail to properly provide for it, means a loss to the people, and to the republic, which can never be regained.

At the last meeting (1902) of the National Education Association of the United States—an organization that has been of incalculable value to the teachers' profession—the following statements were adopted as a part of that organization's "Declaration of Principles: "

"We heartily commend every step which may be taken for increasing the necessary qualifications of teachers, and hope soon to see as definite a standard for the training of teachers as is now fixed by the best schools in the country for the training of physicians or lawyers. We believe that the fixing of such a standard and a strict adherence to it would elevate the work of the teacher to that of a profession. We further commend any movement that may be inaugurated for securing uniformity of requirements in the training and the licensing of teachers in the various states and territories, and which would bring about a just recognition by these states and territories of the diplomas or certificates granted under this system. The crossing of the boundary line of any state should no longer be assumed to nullify the qualifications of the skilled teacher and the expert supervisor, or the scholastic fitness of men and women whose energies are devoted to the cause of education."

Probably no other nation is so dependent upon the intelligence and character of the *whole* people as the United States. This fact has been brought into greater prominence since the active coöperation of this country in the family of nations. Culture, virtue, and true diplomacy should be the prevailing characteristics. And for all these we must turn to our schools and their teachers.

Owing to various circumstances the great majority of the people spend but few years in the public schools. These years should be prolonged if possible, but in any event they should be made the most profitable years of the individual's entire life. Through efficient teaching they should lay the foundation for true character, for intelligence, virtue, and Christian integrity that would give success and stability to the individual, and happiness and encouragement to others. But in the majority of cases these important years are spent under the influence of a teacher, probably not yet out of her teens, who has had absolutely no special preparation for teaching. She lacks in maturity, in scholarship, in judgment, in ideals, in character, and in a knowledge of human nature; but, since she is legion, she has within her power and moulding the destiny of the nation.

THE WAY OUT The writer is not in favor of the German plan for this country. We are too democratic in spirit to make such a plan feasible. To make the boundary line between the work of the elementary teacher, on the one hand, and the secondary teacher, on the other, more difficult of passage, would be injurious in its effect. The teacher should always feel free, and with slight additional preparation be able to change from one field of teaching to the other. If the elementary teacher feels that with some additional study, she can change at will to the kindergarten field, on the one hand, or to the secondary field, on the other, she is happier, more contented, and more efficient in her work. Nothing is apt to disturb the average individual's equilibrium more than to feel that he is doomed to remain in one position. We do not wish to change half as much when we know we can.

REASONABLE
STANDARDS

We have reached a point in our educational progress—at least in many states—wherein the minimum standard for the preparation of ele-

mentary teachers can be, and ought to be, the equivalent of a four years' high school course, and at least two years of additional training at some good state normal school. The minimum requirement for secondary teachers should be, in addition to the above high school course, a four years' college course, supplemented by the professional requirements as outlined in the preceding chapter: the latter to be insisted upon as earnestly as the normal school training is in the former case.

These standards are attainable, thoroughly practical, and in some states already in operation. When put in operation they will elevate the teacher's profession; lengthen and increase the school attendance; be far more economical to the taxpayer, while at the same time increasing the teacher's salary; and will more than treble the efficiency of the teaching. The educators of the country should unite in bringing about these conditions. State superintendents and state boards of education should be urged to take the required action, state legislatures should be appealed to, and all along the line there should be concerted action in arousing public sentiment to demand of teachers the qualifications herein set forth.

CERTIFICATING
OF TEACHERS

The certificating or licensing of teachers for any and all grades should be removed from the hands of separate institutions and local authorities, and should be placed in the hands of a non-partisan state board of education. The members of this board should be chosen on account of their interest and scholarly fitness for the duties which devolve upon them. All certificating of teachers should be in the hands of this central board. There should be no blanket certificates issued. On the contrary, every certificate should be made to cover only such subjects or such parts of the field of education as the candidate is especially fitted to teach. This would give meaning and

value to teachers' certificates, that would go a long way toward securing their universal recognition.

All institutions of the state properly fitted to prepare teachers for the elementary or secondary schools should be subject in that part of their work to the inspection and direction of the state board of education. The recommendations for teachers' certificates for the specially qualified graduates of these schools might come from the proper authorities of the institutions concerned, but the granting power as well as the certificate itself should remain in the hands of the state board. There should be a strong effort among all state boards of education, where, as in New York state, such a law of uniform licensing is put in operation, to have these states add a reciprocity clause, by means of which teachers' certificates of the different states might find mutual recognition. To this end all teachers should labor and strive. It is worth a struggle to elevate one's profession, and to receive in the end the universal appreciation of his fellow-countrymen.

CONCLUSION

If we are right in our conclusions, the student who is looking forward to the teachers' profession should begin her preparation by completing a good high school course. This will fit her for entrance upon college or university study on the one hand, or upon professional study at a first-class normal school on the other. In the first instance she will need at least four years to complete the course provided for her, and in the second case, two. When she has completed her high school course she comes to the parting of the way and must decide upon which road to enter. If she desires to become a teacher in the elementary schools, or if she can spend but two years in further preparation, the state normal school will probably be best adapted to her needs. If, on the other hand, she desires to become a high school teacher, and has four years

to devote to the preparation, it is best for her to enter at once upon college or university training. She will profit greatly by selecting a school that has a good department of education. She should not allow the temptations of early employment to prevent her from completing one of the above courses. It will pay many times over in a richer, happier, and more prosperous life, even though she is destined to remain but a few years in the teachers' profession.¹

When normal schools can adapt their instruction to the needs of high school graduates, the work will become much more specific and valuable. The two years' normal course can then be made to cover at least the freshman year at college, besides a review of the essential features of the common school branches coupled with the proper professional training; the latter to be scattered over the entire two years' work. Should the teacher thus trained desire later to become a secondary teacher, the way is open. With three years of additional study she can complete a university course, including the special requirements for a secondary teachers' certificate. She has lost one year in time by the normal school route, but she ought to be a year stronger on this account for even high school teaching.

There is one fact that cannot be overlooked: under present conditions university graduates are not contented and will not remain in district or grade positions, except under the most favorable circumstances of city life. As a rule, they have been separated in thought for at least eight years from the elementary subjects which they are expected to teach; four years in the high school, and four years in

¹ What has been said regarding the preparation of women teachers applies equally well to the preparation of men. We have used the pronoun *she* simply because it has come to represent the larger number. There are many vital reasons why there should be more male teachers in the elementary schools, especially in the 6th, 7th and 8th grades, and as principals.

college. Their natural environment, education, and associations have, except in a few cases, put them out of touch and sympathy with children. But there should be some feasible plan inaugurated by means of which the children in the elementary schools, who represent at least 95 per cent. of the whole, shall be given efficient instruction. Under proper conditions of preparation and of salary many persons would be just as contented, if not more so, to spend their lives with children as with youth.

When state normal schools and departments of education in colleges and universities properly adjust their instruction after some such plan as has been herein outlined, there will result great economy of effort, of money, and of time; and the training will be more efficient, and more appreciated both by students and the general public. Even under these conditions, there will be found in the normal school classes students who are best adapted for high school teachers, and who will naturally find such positions. Likewise in the university that has no normal department, there will be found students especially fitted by nature for primary or grade teachers. These, also, should be encouraged to enter the field for which they are best adapted. But under the plan suggested these students would be the exception, not the rule. This, in the judgment of the writer, is the solution of the problem.

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APPENDIX

OUTLINES ON THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION AS OFFERED IN THE UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA, 1901

PREFACE

In order to make clearer some of the points raised in chapter five concerning pedagogical courses and the method of treatment, it has been thought advisable to publish a set of outlines as furnished to the students, covering one of the professional courses. The outlines on the history of education were used rather than others, partly on account of the many calls that are received for these outlines, and partly on account of the stress placed upon this subject by schoolmen, and its broader and more general treatment.

The body of the work remains somewhat constant, but the references and questions change slightly from year to year. The references cover only the English material on the subject in the university library. Other references are added in class, especially the more important references in foreign languages which can be read with profit by members of the class.

The method of treatment has already been described in chapter five. But we may add that the student is required to keep a note-book, not alone on account of the value of its content, but far more on account of the educational value that comes from learning how to select wisely and express clearly. The questions answered in the note-book are only in part similar to those found on the different outlines to be answered in the class.

The student's final grade is made up from four different sources: $\frac{1}{4}$ depends upon his note-book; $\frac{1}{4}$ upon his class work; $\frac{1}{4}$ upon his monthly conferences with the instructor; and $\frac{1}{4}$ upon a final examination.

The committing to memory of a text-book, however valuable the content, may store the mind with facts, but it does not educate. It

is only when facts are seen in their true relations that they become of real value. True education consists in knowing the best, and in being able to express that knowledge clearly and effectively. For this reason the course in the history of education aims to develop the student's power in acquiring and imparting knowledge, as well as to give him a broader and richer conception of the human race in its educational development.

I desire in this connection to acknowledge my indebtedness to Professor Earl Barnes, formerly of Leland Stanford University, for much that is contained herein. It was under his instruction that I obtained the first real knowledge of the history of education, and the nucleus from which these outlines have resulted is traceable to those early lessons.

APPENDIX

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

DIRECTIONS FOR NOTE-BOOK.

Directions to be followed in the preparation of Note-book on Pre-Christian Education.

Make a complete bibliography of all readings for permanent record. Give the references read upon each topic and the time spent in reading, naming the reference found most helpful.

Put complete title of subject on first line of first page and the main word of the title on the first line of each succeeding page devoted to that subject.

Put answers and paragraphic parts of answers in paragraphic form. Make answers clear and concise.

Use marginal-ruled paper and place the name of the author or authors in the right hand margin at the close of the paragraph. Use quotation marks for all direct quotations.

TOPICS FOR NOTE-BOOK.

1. Environment of the people.
 - a. Extent, topography and climate of the country.
 - b. Principal productions, industries and activities of the people.
 - c. Nature of the surrounding country.
2. Origin and character of the people.
 - a. Form of government.
 - b. Classes of society, how determined.
 - c. Religious belief.
 - d. Social and family life.
 - e. The ideal man, judged from the standpoint of the nation studied.
 - f. The ideal woman.
3. Education.
 - a. Who are the teachers? How esteemed? What are the necessary requirements for teaching?

- b. Sources of information and subjects of study.
 - c. Nature and efficiency of the instruction.
 - d. Kind of buildings—books and apparatus used.
 - e. Who receive the benefit of education.
 - f. Length of term and age at which the different subjects are presented.
- 4. Ideal or aim of education, and its practical results.
 - 5. Good and bad features of the educational system.
 - 6. Great teachers or leaders in educational thought.

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¹ A valuable book for departments of education. It was received after the major part of the present work was in print and its helpful suggestions could not be utilized.

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SOME OF THE QUESTIONS TO BE CONSIDERED IN THE EDUCATION OF THE VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

1. What are our principal sources of information?
2. Territorial limitations and natural conditions of the country.
3. Government and religion in their effect upon education.
4. The instruments of education employed, i. e., books, buildings and apparatus, and also teachers.
5. The methods of education.

6. Divisions or classes of society.
7. Social and family life.
8. Who received the benefits of education?
9. What distinction is made in regard to sex?
10. How is education managed?
11. What is the aim or ideal of education?
12. What are its practical results?
13. Good and bad features of the educational system.

From Chinese Records, the Hsiao King and the Li Ki.

"The Master said, Now filial piety is the root of (all) virtue and (the stem) out of which grows (all moral) teaching. Sit down again, and I will explain the subject to you. Our bodies—to every hair and bit of skin—are received by us from our parents, and we must not presume to injure or wound them; this is the beginning of filial piety. When we have established our character by practice of the (filial) course, so as to make our name famous in future ages, and thereby glorify our parents: this is the end of filial piety. It commences with the service of parents; it proceeds to the service of rulers; it is completed by the establishment of the character."¹

"The Rules of Propriety are simply (the development of) the principle of Reverence. Therefore the reverence paid to the father makes (all) sons pleased; the reverence paid to an elder brother makes (all) younger brothers pleased; the reverence paid to a ruler makes (all) subjects pleased. The reverence paid to one man makes thousands and myriads of men pleased. The reverence is paid to few, and the pleasure extends to many—this is what is meant by an "All-embracing Rule of Conduct."²

"If a man observe the rules of propriety, he is in a condition of security; if he do not, he is in one of danger. Hence, there is the saying, 'The rules of propriety should by no means be left unlearned.' Propriety is seen in humbling one's self and giving honor to others. Even porters and peddlers are sure to display this honor (in some cases); how much more should the rich and noble do so (in all)! When the rich and noble know to love propriety, they do not become proud nor dissolute. When the poor and mean know to love propriety, their minds do not become cowardly."³

¹ In *Sacred Books of the East*. Translated by Jas. Legge, edited by F. Max Müller. 2d edition. Oxford, 1899, 3:466.

² *Ibid.*, 3:482.

³ *Ibid.*, Oxford, 1885, 27:65.

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In your study of Hindu education, follow suggestions as given in the former lesson.

1. Note political and religious variations from the Chinese and their effect upon education.
2. Account for these changes.
3. Do they represent a higher or a lower civilization? Why?
4. What industries were known to the Hindu?
5. What classes of society were recognized?
6. On what was class distinction based? What effect has caste on education?
7. Characterize their ideal man; the ideal woman.

In pre-Christian education our thought will be confined largely to the "Golden Age" of the people.

Extracts from Hindu Records.

"Natural dispositions can be altered by education."

"Water though heated gets back its chilliness."

"A man will, without any doubt, become similar to those by whom he is waited upon, or to those on whom he himself waits." From *Pantschatantra*: Trans. by Ludwig Fritze, 1884.

"To learn and to understand the Vedas, to practice pious mortifications, to acquire divine knowledge of the law and of philosophy, to treat with veneration his natural and spiritual father, these are the chief duties by means of which endless felicity is obtained." "Women have no business to repeat texts from the Vedas. This is the law established." "Let not a husband eat with his wife, nor look at her eating."

"No act is to be done according to her own will by a young girl, a young woman, or even by an old woman, though in their own houses." *Laws of Manu*, Lect. V, 147.

"In her childhood a girl should be under her father; in her youth, of her husband; her husband being dead, of her sons; a woman should never enjoy her own will." Lect. V, 148.

"She who, restrained in mind, speech, and body, is not unfaithful to her husband, attains the abode of her husband, and is called virtuous by the good." Lect. IX, 29.

"One who understands the Veda-treatise deserves rule over armies, kingly power, the right to adjudge punishment, and the governorship of all the world." Lect. XII, 100.

"Those who have perused many literary compositions are superior to those who are ignorant; those who remember what they learn are better than those who have perused many literary compositions; those who understand what they learn are superior to those who remember it; those who practice what they learn are better than those who understand it." Lect. XII, 103.

"The best source of deliverance for a Brahman is (ascetic) austerity and (Vedic) wisdom; through (ascetic) austerity one slays sin, through (Vedic) wisdom one gets immortality." Lect. XII, 104. The last paragraphs have been quoted from *The Ordinances of Manu*, Trübner's Oriental Series, edited by E. W. Hopkins, Columbia College, N. Y., 1884.

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1. Compare Persian Education with the education of the countries already studied.
2. Does Persia represent an earlier or later civilization? Give reasons for answer.
3. Who received the benefits of education?
4. Show how their religious belief influenced their education and political life.

5. What did they consider the three cardinal virtues? Why?
6. What was their ideal man? Their ideal woman?
7. Describe their system of education.
8. Who were the Magi? How did they obtain their office? How educated? How esteemed?
9. The nature of the Persian literature?

Extracts from Persian Records and Herodotus.

"He who is less than thee consider as an equal, and an equal as a superior, and a greater than he as a chieftain, and a chieftain as a ruler. Among rulers one is to be acquiescent, obedient and truth-speaking; and among accusers be submissive, mild and kindly regardful. Good government is that which maintains and directs a province flourishing, the poor untroubled, and the law and customs true, and sets aside improper laws and customs. It well maintains water and fire by law, and keeps in progress the ceremonial of the sacred beings, duties and good works."

"The Persians more than any other men admit foreign usages; . . . they adopt all kinds of luxuries when they hear of them. . . . It is established as a sign of manly excellence, next after excellence in fight, to be able to show many sons; and to those who have the most, the king sends gifts every year, for they consider number to be a source of strength. And they educate their children, beginning at five years old and going on till twenty, in three things only, in riding, in shooting, and in speaking the truth: but before a boy is five years of age he does not come into the presence of his father, but lives with the women; and it is so done for this reason, that if the child should die while he is being bred up, he may not be the cause of any grief to his father. . . . Whatever things it is not lawful for them to do, these it is not lawful for them to even speak of: and the most disgraceful thing in their estimation is to tell a lie, and next to this, to owe money." Herodotus, Macaulay's translation, Book I, 135-138.

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QUESTIONS.

The Jews represent the theocratic system of education.

1. What is meant by this system; How does it differ from the systems already considered?
2. Account for the unusual stability of the Jewish race.
3. Is this stability or permanence of racial characteristics to be desired in an ideal system of education? Why?
4. What were the subjects of education? Who were the teachers? Has the position of woman essentially changed?

5. What are the five great turning-points in Hebrew life and character?
6. What is the nature of the Talmud?
7. What debt do we owe to Hebrew civilization?

Extracts from Hebrew Records, principally the Talmud.

A sage met a friend who, having a cloth carelessly tied around his head, was hastily taking his son to school. "Why such haste?" inquired he. "Because," replied the father, "the duty of taking the child to study stands before everything else."

"As soon as the child learns to speak, the father should teach him to say in Hebrew,—the law which Moses commanded us is the heritage of the Congregation of Jacob,—and also the first verse of the Shema,—Hear, O Israel! the eternal our God, is One God.' Just as a man is bound to have his son instructed in the law so also should he have his son taught some handicraft or profession. Whoever does not teach his son a handicraft teaches him to be a thief."

"Are both panting under some heavy burden?—the teacher must be relieved first, and then the father; should both be imprisoned, even then should the teacher be redeemed first; because the father has given the son temporal life only whilst the teacher is the cause of his gaining spiritual life."

"The teacher should strive to make the lessons agreeable to the pupils by clear reason, as well as by frequent repetitions, until they thoroughly understand the matter and are able to recite it with great fluency."

"The qualities of the sages are: Modesty, meekness, eagerness, courage, bearing wrongs done to them, and being endeared to every one; submission to the members of their household, fear of sin, and judging every one according to his deeds."

"Deliberate before a word passes thy lips, and be thoughtful how thou should'st act in worldly affairs."

"He who occupies himself only with the study of the Scripture pursues the right course, yet the sages do not think so; but he who occupies himself with the study of the Talmud pursues a course than which there is no better."

"The beauty of the law is wisdom; the beauty of wisdom is modesty; the beauty of modesty is the fear of heaven; the beauty of the fear of heaven is noble performance; the beauty of noble performance is secrecy (*i. e.*, not publicly, for the purpose of being praised)."

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QUESTIONS.

1. To what race division do the Egyptians belong?
 2. What period seems to represent their highest civilization?
 3. Into what classes of society were they divided?
 4. What education was received by the different classes?
 5. Was there any opportunity of changing from a lower to a higher class?
 6. What arts and sciences did they know?
 7. What would you designate their system of education?
 8. What was their religious belief?
 9. What is the Egyptian ideal of manhood and womanhood?
 10. What means had they of preserving their knowledge?
 11. What are some of the things that indicate their high state of civilization?
 12. Account for the decadence of Egyptian civilization.
- Other questions will be added in class to be considered in connection with the general topics given on the first outline.

Extracts from Egyptian Records.

A Soul's Defence before Osiris. "I have not been idle, I have not been intoxicated; I have not told secrets; I have not told falsehoods; I have not defrauded; I have not slandered; I have not caused tears; I have given food to the hungry, drink to the thirsty, and clothes to the naked." (From the book of the dead.)

From Prince Phtah-hotep's Book ¹—A moral treatise on filial obedience. "The obedient son shall grow old and obtain favor; thus have I myself become an old man on earth and have lived 110 years in favor with the king and approved by my seniors."

On Freedom From Arrogance. "If thou art become great, after thou hast become humble, and if thou hast amassed riches after poverty, being because of that thou art first in the town, if thou art known for thy wealth and art become a great lord, let not thine heart become proud of thy riches, for it is God who is author of them. Despise not another who is as thou wast; be toward him as toward thy equal."

¹ Said to be the oldest book in the world (3600 B. C.). In National Library, Paris.

On Cheerfulness. "Let thy face be cheerful as long as thou livest; has any one come out of the coffin after being once interred?"

The Laborer. "Have you ever represented to yourself in imagination the estate of the rustic who tills the ground? Before he has put the sickle to his crops the locusts have blasted part thereof; then come the rats and the birds. If he is slack in housing his crop, the thieves are on him. His horse dies of weariness as it drags the wain. The tax collector arrives; his agents are armed with clubs, he has negroes with him who carry whips of palm branches. They all cry, "give us your grain," and he has no way of avoiding their extortionate demands. Next the wretch is bound and sent off to work, without wages, at the canals; his wife is taken and chained, his children are stripped and plundered." Written by Amenemha, the chief librarian of Rameses the Great, to the poet pentatour (From a papyrus in the British Museum).

The Overseer. "I was appointed overseer of the serfs of the temple of the gods of Mah, 3000 bulls with heifers. I was praised on account of it by the palace for the yearly produce of cattle. No little child have I injured; no widow have I oppressed; no fisherman have I hindered; no shepherd have I detained; no foreman of five men have I taken from his gang out for the labor. There was no poverty in my days, no starvation in my time; when there were years of famine, I ploughed all the fields of Mah to its southern and northern frontiers; I gave life to its inhabitants, making its food; no one starved in it. I gave to the widow as to the married woman. I made no difference between the great and the little in all I did." From the inscription of Amenemha in a chamber of a tomb at Benhassan (Records of the Past, 12:63). See also 2:75, Quotation from King Rameses II.

An affectionate mother to her child. "Thou wast put to school and whilst thou wast being taught letters she came punctually to thy master, bringing thee the bread and drink of her house. Thou art now come to man's estate; thou art married and hast a house; but never do thou forget the painful labor which thy mother endured, nor all the salutary care she has taken of thee. Take heed lest she have cause to complain of thee, for fear that she should raise her hands to God, and He should listen to her prayer."—From the maxims of Ani—5th Dynasty.

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

In the Greek, we have the highest and richest expression of the Aryan civilization. No other people offer in so short a period so much that is worthy of our admiration. In many lines of thought they seem to have exhausted human capabilities and set the standard for future generations. For this reason the student of pedagogy must turn with more than usual interest to the study of the Greek ideals and their processes of attaining them.

Some Important Dates in Greek History.

"Trojan War, 1183 B. C. (?); Homer about 950 and Hesiod about 850 B. C.; Spartan Power dominant in the Peloponnesus, 650 B. C. Athens,—Legislation of Solon, 590 B. C.; Persian invasion and battle of Marathon, 490 B. C.; Invasion by Xerxes, burning of Athens, and battle of Salamis, 480 B. C.; Battle of Plataea, 479 B. C. Supremacy of Athens. Peloponnesian War, 431-404 B. C.; Defeat of Athens and supremacy of Sparta, 404 B. C.; Spartan Wars with Persia and Darius; divisions of Greece; ascendancy of Philip of Macedon over Greece, 338 B. C.; Alexander the Great. Greece made a Roman province, 146 B. C." S. S. Laurie, *Pre-Christian Education*, p. 208, 1st edition.

1. In what lines of activity did Greece produce masters?
2. Name a few of these masters.
3. How do you account for Greek versatility and greatness?
4. Note religion, form of government and principal pre-Socratic means of education.

Extracts from Thucydides' account of Pericles.

"And in the matter of education, whereas they (the Spartans) from early youth are always undergoing laborious exercises which are to make them brave, we live at ease, and yet are equally ready to face the perils which they face."

"Then we are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes, and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness." . . . "The great impediment to action is in our opinion, not discussion, but the want of that knowledge which is gained by discussion preparatory to action; for we have a peculiar power of thinking before we act and of acting too, whereas other men are courageous from ignorance but hesitate upon reflection." . . . "I say that Athens is the school of Hellas, and that the individual Athenian in his own person seems to have the power of adapting himself to the most varied forms of action with the utmost versatility and grace."

SUGGESTIONS.

1. Many schools of Philosophy took their rise in and about Athens as the result of some great teacher, around whom many students congregated. Such were the schools of Pythagoras, Socrates, the Academy of Plato, the Lyceum of Aristotle, and the schools of the Epicureans and the Stoics.
2. The nature of these schools.
3. Other schools that existed at the time, including the teachers and subjects of study.
4. Compare earlier and later Grecian civilization and education, *i. e.*, pre-Socratic and Socratic periods.

SPARTANS.

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QUESTIONS.

1. Compare the education of the Spartans with the Persians on the one hand and the Athenians on the other.
2. Was their education in any sense individualistic?
3. Are we justified in classing the Spartan system of military training among the system of education? Why?
4. What was their ideal man? their ideal woman?
5. By what means were these to be obtained?
6. Who were the subjects of their training?
7. Did they pursue the best means of accomplishing their object?
8. What may be said of their speech, their music, their courage, their efficiency?

Extracts from Plutarch's Lives (Lycurgus).

"After regulating the marriages, he ordered the maidens to exercise themselves with wrestling, running, throwing the quoits, and casting the dart, to the end that the fruit they conceived might in strong and healthier bodies take firmer root and find better growth."

"Nor was it in the power of the father to dispose of the child as he saw (fit); he was obliged to carry it before certain triers at a place called Lesche; those were some of the elders of the tribe to which the child belonged; their business it was to carefully view the infant, and if they found it stout and well made they gave order for its rearing, and allotted to it one of the nine thousand shares of land. But if they found it puny and ill-shapen they ordered it to be taken to a sort of chasm . . . thinking it neither for the good of the child itself nor for the public interest that it should be brought up. Nor was it lawful indeed for the father to bring up his children after his own fancy; but as soon as they were seven years old, they were enrolled in certain companies and classes, where they all lived on the same order and discipline. Reading and writing they gave them just enough to serve their turn; their chief care was to make them good subjects, and to teach them to endure pain and to conquer in battle. After they were twelve years old they were no longer allowed to wear any under garment; they had one coat to serve them a year. They lodged together in little bands upon beds made of rushes which grew by the banks of the river Eurotas."

SOCRATES.

For references see former outlines, also Card Catalogue, and Cyclopedias.

1. Socrates as a man, a scholar, a teacher.
2. What do you understand by the Socratic Method?
3. Why did Socrates ask direct questions?
4. What can the mind discover through reflection alone?
5. What subjects of study yield themselves to the Socratic Method?
6. What are the dangers of this method?
7. Did the death of Socrates advantage or disadvantage Greece?

Illustration of Socratic Method.

Socrates—Do you observe, Meno, that I am not teaching the boy anything but only asking him questions; and now he fancies that he knows how long a line is necessary in order to produce a figure of eight square feet; does he not?

Meno—Yes.

Soc.—And does he really know?

Meno—Certainly not.

Soc.—He only guesses that (because the square is double) the line is doubled.

Meno—True.

Soc.—Observe him while he recalls the steps in regular order. (To the boy.) Tell me, boy, do you assert that a double space comes from a double line? Remember that I am not speaking of an oblong, but of a square, and of a square twice the size of this one—that is to say, of eight feet; and I want to know whether you still say that a double square comes from a double line?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—But does not this line become doubled if we add another such line here?

Boy—Certainly.

Soc.—And four such lines will make a space containing eight feet?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—Let us describe such a figure: is not that what you would say is the figure of eight feet?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—And are there not these four divisions in the figure, each of which is equal to the figure of four feet?

Boy—True.

Soc.—And is not that four times four?

Boy—Certainly.

Soc.—And four times is not double?

Boy—No, indeed.

Soc.—But how much?

Boy—Four times as much.

Soc.—Therefore the double line, boy, has formed a space, not twice, but four times as much.

Boy—True.

Soc.—And four times four are sixteen, are they not?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—What line would give you a space of eight feet, as this gives one of sixteen feet? Do you see?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—And the space of four feet is made from this half line?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—Good; and is not a space of eight feet twice the size of this, and half the size of the other?

Boy—Certainly.

Soc.—Such a space, then, will be made out of a line greater than this one, and less than that one.

Boy—Yes; that is what I think.

Soc.—Very good; I like to hear you say what you think. And now tell me, is not this a line of two feet and that of four?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—Then the line which forms the side of eight feet ought to be more than this line of two feet, and less than the other of four feet?

Boy—It ought.

Soc.—Try and see if you can tell me how much it will be.

Boy—Three feet.

Soc.—Then if we add a half to this line of two, that will be the line of three. Here are two and there is one; and on the other side, here are two also and there is one: and that makes the figure of which you speak?

Boy—Yes.

Soc.—But if there are three feet this way and three feet that way, the whole space will be three times three feet?

Boy—That is evident.

Soc.—And how much are three times three feet?

Boy—Nine.

Soc.—And how much is the double of four?

Boy—Eight.

Soc.—Then the figure of eight is not made out of a line of three?

Boy—No.

Soc.—But from what line? Tell me exactly; and if you would rather not reckon, try and show me the line.

Boy—Indeed, Socrates, I do not know.

Soc.—Do you see, Meno, what advances he has made in his power

of recollection? He did not know at first, and he does not know now, what is the side of a figure of eight feet; but then he thought that he knew, and answered confidently as if he knew, and had no difficulty; but now he has a difficulty, and neither knows nor fancies that he knows.

Meno—True.

Soc.—Is he not better off in knowing his ignorance?

Meno—I think that he is.

Soc.—If we have made him doubt, and given him the “torpedo’s shock,” have we done him any harm?

Meno—I think not.

Soc.—We have certainly done something that may assist him in finding out the truth of the matter; and now he will wish to remedy his ignorance, but then he would have been ready to tell all the world that the double space should have a double side. Dialogues of Plato, Jowett’s Translation, 1:257-259.

PLATO AND XENOPHON.

See former references; also index to *Am. Jour. of Educa.*, card catalogue and cyclopedias; Plato's *Republic* and *Laws*, and Xenophon's *Cyropedeia* and *Economics*; Plato's *Republic*, W. L. Bryan, and B. Bosanquet. *Education of the Young in the Republic of Plato* (trans.).

Suggestions and Questions.

A study of the early life, education and environment of Plato and Xenophon will aid in a better understanding of their writings.

Plato becomes deeply impressed with the dangers that seem to threaten the social order of Greece on account of the faulty education of children, the neglect of women and the disorganization of the state through ignorant individualism. This feeling is no doubt heightened by the teachings and tragic death of Socrates. He gives in his *Republic* a plan for overcoming and escaping these threatened dangers.

The State is simply the individual writ large, and like the individual who has three faculties, the intellect, the spirit and the appetites, the ideal state is composed of three classes of society (1) the intelligent, i. e., philosophers and sages; (2) the spirited, i. e., warriors and soldiers; (3) the money makers, i. e., tradesmen and husbandmen. As the strength of the individual depends upon the harmonious development of his three faculties, so the well-being of the State depends upon the proper relation and harmonious action of these three classes of society. It is from the development of this thought that Plato gives voice to the four cardinal virtues, wisdom, courage, temperance and justice.

1. Are all grades of society provided for in Plato's Scheme?
2. How is this ideal state to be brought about?
3. What becomes of the family? Judging from Plato's standpoint was this a weakness or a strength?
4. How were children to be cared for and educated?
5. What were the steps in Plato's scheme of education?
6. Point out some of the more noticeable defects.
7. What changed views did Plato reach in later life, as seen in the "*Laws*?"
8. What writings of Xenophon are of special interest to a teacher, and why?
9. Xenophon, though a student of Socrates and educated in the literature of the Greeks, makes no provision in his scheme of education for intellectual or literary pursuits. Why?

Compare the ideal man and woman of Plato and of Xenophon.

ARISTOTLE. 384-322 B. C.

See references already cited. Aristotle was born at Stagira, Thrace, of noble and well educated parents. After the death of his father his early education was directed by Proxenus of Atarneus. At 18 he entered Plato's Academy, where he remained an apt student for twenty years. On the death of Plato he returned to Atarneus. At 40 he was entrusted with the education of Alexander, son of King Philip of Macedonia. He established a school at Mieza which he called Nymphaeum.

In 335 B. C., when Alexander, then King of Macedonia, prepared to invade Persia, Aristotle moved to Athens and established a school in the Lyceum, or Periclean Gymnasium, where he spent his twelve most important years in teaching and writing. Banished from Athens he retired to Chalcis in Euboea, where he died of disease of the stomach in 322 B. C. Among his principal writings are his works on logic, metaphysics, ethics and politics.

1. How did Aristotle's system of Education as seen in the ideal State (*Politics*: chs. 4 & 5), differ from that given by Plato?

2. How did it differ from the usual system of Athenian education in his time?

3. Account for these differences.

4. What were the studies pursued by the different classes of Greek Society? How did these studies differ in number, kind and efficiency from the studies required of the student to-day?

5. What requirements in the Spartan or Athenian education impress you as worthy of being ingrafted into our own? What were the weak points of these systems of education?

6. Do you consider the plans of education as proposed by Plato and Aristotle better than those they were to supersede? Why?

Extracts from Aristotle's Writings.

Politics, Book V, I. "Education should be regulated by the state for the ends of the state, and each citizen should understand that he is not his own master, but a part of the state. What we have to aim at is the happiness of each citizen, and happiness consists in a complete activity and practice of virtue."

"Up to the age of fourteen it is not desirable to make children apply themselves to study of any kind or to compulsory bodily exercise, for fear of injuring their growth. They should be allowed only so much movement as to not fall into sluggish habits of life. Their amusements should not be of too laborious a sort, nor yet effeminate."

Education, in the strict sense, begins at seven and may be divided into two periods, seven to fourteen, and fourteen to twenty-one.

We may say that there are four usual subjects of education, viz.:

reading, writing, gymnastics, music, and further, although this is not universally admitted, the art of design. Book V. 2.

"Care for the body must precede care for the soul; next to care for the body must come care for the appetite; and last of all care for the intelligence. We train the appetite for the sake of the intelligence, and the body for the sake of the soul."

"No citizen has a right to consider himself as belonging to himself; but all ought to regard themselves as belonging to the State, inasmuch as each is a part of the State, and care for the part naturally looks to care for the whole."

"Since the whole State has but one end, it is plainly necessary that there should be but one education for all the citizens."

"Let no one ignorant of geometry enter here."—Motto above the door of Plato's private home.

ROMANS.

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Suggestions and Questions.

Lesson one will include the education of Regal and Republican Rome, 752-727 B. C.

Lesson two and following will include Early Imperial Rome.

Observe in your study the suggestions given in the first lesson. Note especially the government, religion, chief occupation, ideals of Education and means of obtaining them, branches of study, types of manhood and womanhood in demand, and general character of the early Romans.

1. What changes took place in education under imperial Rome?
2. Compare Roman with Grecian civilization. Note especially the characteristic differences in the education.
3. If the following extracts from the Twelve Tables of Roman Law were the only sources of information, what could you infer of Roman civilization?

Extracts from the Twelve Tables of Roman Law, about 451 B. C.

"A father may kill at its birth a child monstrously deformed. He shall have a right of life and death over all his lawful children, and also of selling them. If a father sells his child thrice, the child shall afterwards be free from him. If a child be born to him within ten months after his death it is his lawful child."

"Let there be an interval of two feet and a half between the wall of one house and that of another."

"If roadside fields are left without enclosure, any one may drive cattle over them."

"If any one takes more than eight and a third per cent. interest on a loan, he shall forfeit four times the amount."

"Let there be no exception of law in favor of the individuals. Let there be the same law to the obligor and the obligee, to the constant ally and to him who has been restored to an alliance formerly violated. If a judge or arbitrator lawfully appointed take a bribe for his decision, let it be a capital offence. Let no capital punishment be pronounced against a Roman Citizen except in the great assembly of the people. Let inquisitors of murder be created by the people to inquire into capital crimes. If any person collect nightly meetings in the city, let it be a capital offence. If any one incite an enemy against Rome, or betray, or deliver up, to the enemy a citizen, let it be a capital offence."

"Let not the dead be buried or burned within the city. Abolish expense in mourning and funeral ceremonies sacred to the infernal deities. Let not the funeral pile be made of carved wood. Let there be no more than three mourning women, and ten flute players. Let not the women tear their hair, nor use loud howlings. Let not the separate bones of a dead man be preserved for a second funeral, excepting in the case of one killed in battle, or in an enemies' country. Let the anointing of slaves and the handing around of liquors be abolished. Let no perfumed liquors be sprinkled on the deceased. Let no long garlands, nor altars covered with perfumes, be carried before the corpse, but if the deceased has gained a crown of honor by his bravery, let the praise of himself and his ancestors be celebrated, and let it be placed before the corpse, both within doors and when it is carried forth. Let not several funerals be made for one man, nor many couches be spread. Let no gold be used, but if any one has had his teeth fastened in with gold, let it be lawful to bury or burn that gold with the body. Let no funeral pile nor sepulchre be erected within sixty feet of another person's house against his will. Let the sepulchre and its vestibule be forever incapable of becoming private property."

"Let that which the people have ordained be settled law. Let there be no right of marriage between the Patricians and the Plebeians." For a somewhat different and more detailed account, see *Studies in General History*, by Mary D. Sheldon, pp. 145-146, and *Source Book of the History of Education*, by Paul Monroe, pp. 334-344.

4. What are the chief educational characteristics of the Romans during (a) the Primitive Period, (b) during early Greek influence, and (c) during the period of decadence?

IMPERIAL ROME.

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 See also the references on the former outline.

QUESTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS.

1. At what period did Rome give forth expressions of its highest civilization?
2. In what way has this civilization been preserved?
3. What Roman writers are especially interesting to the student of pedagogy?
4. Give their leading views on education and compare these views with the expressions of the Greeks covering similar subjects.
5. Notice the subjects of study, their order of presentation, and the amount included in each, also schools and teachers, and the subjects which received the greatest attention.
6. Compare the ideas of Quintilian and Plutarch as seen in their writings on education.
7. How do these views compare with the present thought and practice?
8. What is the main criticism of the ideals of education advanced by these writers?

Extracts from Roman Writers.

"A man must augment his substance, and he is deserving of praise and full of divine spirit whose account books at his death show that he has gained more than he has inherited." "Believe me, those statues from Syracuse were brought into this city with hostile effect. I already hear too, many commending and admiring the decorations of Athens and Corinth, and ridiculing the earthen images of our Roman Gods that stand on the fronts of their temples."—Cato.

"If they disseminate their literature among us, it will destroy everything; but, still worse, if they send their doctors among us, for they have bound themselves by a solemn oath to kill the barbarians and the Romans."—Id.

"Every duty which tends to preserve human relations and human society must be assigned a higher place than any which stop short with knowledge and science." Cicero.

"What greater service can we of to-day render the Republic than to instruct and train the young." Id.

"I pass to the pleasure of oratorical eloquence, the delight of which one enjoys not at any one moment, but almost every day and every hour." Tacitus.

"It is my desire that all children whatsoever may partake of the benefits of education alike; but if any person, by reason of the narrowness of their estates, cannot make use of my precepts, let them not blame me that give them, but Fortune, which disableth them, from making the advantage by them they otherwise might." Plutarch.

"The civil man, and he who is truly wise, who does not devote himself to idle disputes, but to the administration of the commonwealth (from which those folks who are called philosophers have farthest withdrawn themselves), will be glad to employ every available oratorical means to reach his ends, having previously settled in his own mind what ends are honorable." Quintilian.

CHURCH FATHERS AND CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS.

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Thoughts for Consideration.

(a) The New Spirit of Christianity and its progress; (b) The great change in educational ideas. (c) Intellectual poverty of the early Christian centuries and its cause; (d) The division of the Church Fathers into two classes, those opposed to the study of pagan literature and religion, as Tertullian, St. Augustine and St. Jerome; and those favoring such study, as St. Basil, Clement and Origen of

Alexandria, and others; (e) The cause and outcome of this division; (f) What dangers did the pagan schools offer to Christian education?

"It is better by far to be ignorant than to know what you ought not to know, since you know what you ought and need to know." "Thy faith," says Luke (XVIII, 42), hath saved thee," not inquiry into scripture. Curiosity yields to faith; love of glory to the hope of salvation. To know nothing opposed to our law is to know all." "What use is it to talk with men who themselves confess that they have hitherto been seeking? If indeed they have hitherto been seeking, then hitherto they have found naught."—Tertullian.

"The choice lies between two alternatives, a liberal education which you may get by sending your children to school (public), or the salvation of their souls, which they secure by going to the monks. Which is to gain the day, science or the soul?" If you can unite both advantages, do so by all means, but if not, choose the most precious."—St. Chrysostom.

"I am anxious that you should devote all your strength to Christianity, and in order to do it I wish you to extract from the philosophy of the Greeks what may serve as a course of study or preparation for Christianity, and from Geometry and Astronomy what will serve to explain the sacred Scriptures, in order that all that the sons of philosophers are wont to say about geometry and music, grammar, rhetoric and astronomy, as fellow-helpers to philosophy, may we not say of philosophy itself in relation to Christianity."—Origen.

"We may also see in their own houses, shoe-makers, wool-weavers, fullers, and the most illiterate and rustic men, who dare not say anything in the presence of more elderly and wiser fathers of families; but when they meet with children apart from their parents, and certain stupid women with them, then they discuss something of a wonderful nature; such as, it is not proper to pay attention to parents or preceptors, but that they should be persuaded by them. For, say they, your parents and preceptors are delirious and stupid, and neither know what is truly good nor are able to effect it, being possessed of trifles of an unusual nature; they add, that they alone know how it is proper to live, and that if children are persuaded by them, they will be blessed and also the family to which they belong."—Arguments of Celsus vs. the Christians.

"I was fasting just before I meant to read Cicero. After many night-long vigils, after the tears which the recollection of my past sins drew from my very heart, I used to take up my Plautus. If, when I returned to myself, I began to read the Prophets, their rude speech made me shudder; and because I did not see the light with my blind eyes, I thought it was not the fault of my eyes, but of the sun. While the old serpent was thus mocking me, about the middle of Lent a fever,

of which the seeds were in me, seized on my exhausted frame; and, without any respite (which sounds incredible), so fed on my luckless limbs that my skin scarcely held to my bones. Meanwhile, my funeral was being prepared, and the vital heat of my soul barely palpitated in the slight warmth of my breast, while all my body was growing cold; when suddenly I was rapt in the spirit before the tribunal of the Judge, where there was such a flood of light, and such resplendence from the glory of the angel spectators, that, prostrate on the earth, I did not dare to uplift my eyes. Asked about my state, I answered that I was a Christian. '*Thou liest,*' answered He; '*thou art a Ciceronian, not a Christian; for where thy treasure is, there is thy heart.*' Instantly I became dumb, and, amid blows (for He had ordered me to be scourged), I was tortured still more by the fire of conscience, thinking over that verse, '*In hell who shall confess to Thee?*' Yet I began to cry, and, wailing aloud, to say, '*Pity me, O Lord, pity me,*' amid the sounds of the lash. At length they who stood by, casting themselves before the knees of the Judge, prayed Him to pardon my youth, and to grant a place for repentance of my error, but to inflict torture on me afterwards if at any time I read the books of Gentile literature. I who, in these dread straits, would have been willing to promise even greater things, began to swear, and call on His name, and say, '*O Lord, if I ever possess secular manuscripts, if I ever read them, I have denied Thee.*' Dismissed after having taken this oath, I returned to the upper air, and, to the astonishment of all, opened my eyes bathed with a flood of tears, that my anguish convinced even the incredulous. Indeed, this had been no slumber nor vain dream, by which we are often deceived. That tribunal before which I lay, that grim judgment which I feared, is my witness; may I never again be thus brought to trial! I confess that my shoulders were dark with welts; that, after awaking, I felt the blows, and that thenceforth I read Divine books with a zeal more ardent than I had read human books before." St. Jerome, Ep. xxii. 30. Farrar's *Lives of the Fathers*, 2:183-184.

Prominent names among the early Church Fathers and Teachers.

St. Ambrose, Apollinaris, St. Athanasius, St. Augustine, St. Basil, St. John Chrysostom, Clement of Alexandria, St. Cyprian, Dionysius of Alexandria, St. Gregory of Nazianzus, St. Gregory of Nyssa, St. Ignatius of Antioch, St. Jerome, St. Justin, St. Martin of Tours, Montanus of Phrygia, Origen of Alexandria, St. Polycarp, Tertullian, Cassiodorus, St. Benedict, Cassianus of Marseilles, Boethius, Theodore of Mopsuestia, St. Theodore of Tarsus.

What were their views concerning education, pagan literature, and celibacy of priesthood?

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Christian Schools and Teachers; *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 24:337, 374.

(1) What was the form, nature and purpose of the early Christian schools? (2) How was ancient learning preserved? (3) What criticism may be justly offered concerning education of that period? (4) Account for the ascetic tendency of the early Church Fathers. (5) What was the result of asceticism on education and religious progress?

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See also the *Histories of Education*.

1. Account for the growth and influence of the early Christian church in Ireland and Britain.

2. What encouragement did King Alfred offer to education?

3. What means did he use in attaining his object?

4. What were the principal subjects of study, and the nature and condition of the schools?

5. In Alfred's time what was the Ideal Man, the Ideal Woman?

"In the year of our Lord's Incarnation 849 was born Alfred, King of the Anglo-Saxons. The mother of Alfred was named Osburga, a religious woman, noble by birth and by nature . . . In the year of our Lord's Incarnation 858 King Ethelwulf sent his son Alfred above named to Rome with an honorable escort, both of nobles and of commoners. Pope Leo IV. at the time presided over the Apostolic See, and he anointed for the King the aforesaid Alfred and adopted him as his spiritual son . . . He (Alfred) was loved by his father and mother and even by all the people above all his brothers, and was educated altogether at the court of the King. As he advanced through the years of his infancy and youth, his form appeared more comely than that of his brothers; in look, in speech and in manners he was more graceful than they. His noble nature implanted in him from his cradle a love of wisdom, but with shame be it spoken, by the unworthy neglect of his parents and nurses, he remained illiterate even till he was twelve years old, or more, but he listened with serious attention to the Saxon poems which he often heard recited and easily retained them in docile memory. He was a zealous practicer of hunting in all its branches, and hunted with great assiduity and success." From Assar's *Life of Alfred the Great*.

CHARLEMAGNE AND THE REVIVAL OF LEARNING.

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- White, Jas. *Eighteen Christian Centuries*, pp. 171-216.
- (See also the various *Histories of Education*.)

1. What is meant by the Seven Liberal Arts?
2. How did the phrase originate, and what subjects were included?
3. Why was Charlemagne interested in education?
4. What were the subjects and methods of study in Charlemagne's school?
5. What were the principal difficulties in the way of progress?

Letters of Charlemagne to the Lectors of the Churches.

"The indolence of our ancestors has brought the study of letters to almost nothing. We are trying to revive it, and we invite all those whom we can influence by our example to urge the utmost study of the holy scriptures. All the books of the old and new testaments were disfigured by the awkward stupidity of copyists. With

the help of God, who helps us in all things, we have had their mistakes entirely corrected. Inspired by the example of Pepin our father who introduced into all the Gallic churches the fine traditions of the Roman chant, we are engaged with like anxiety to procure for them a collection of the most important reading (Lessons). Those who have attempted to read one of them for a night service have lost their pains in spite of their best intentions. The lessons have been written down without the names of the authors, and have been scribbled down full of mistakes. We cannot bear that during our reign people should hear in the midst of the lessons of the sacred office such jarring mistakes, and we have given into the charge of our friend Paul, the Deacon, to put the finishing touches to the work."

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

It is not easy to fix the date of the beginning of the universities. Many of them seem to have been long in existence before obtaining any patent or charter from King or Pope to give them legal sanction. Laurie says, that the Church did not found universities any more than it founded the order of chivalry. They were founded by concurrence (not wholly fortuitous) of able men who had something they wished to teach, and of youths who desired to learn. None the less were the acquiescence and protection of the Church and State necessary in those days for the fostering of those infant seminaries.

The many important Roman-Hellenic schools like those at Rome, Athens, Byzantium, Byretus, Alexandria, Rheims, etc., were not known as universities. This term is of later origin.

1. In the Middle Ages, what authority takes the place of the State in directing education?

2. What is the prevailing ideal? How does it compare with the Greek ideal?

3. What was the condition of physical, intellectual and moral education?

4. What was the principal factor in preventing education from wholly lapsing?

5. How did the following schools differ: Monastic, Cathedral, Palatine, Village or City?

6. Describe the Mediæval University, including government, relation to State and Church, instructors, students, subjects of study, length of course, influence upon education and society, and means of support.

List of Some of the More Important Mediæval Universities.

Italy: Salerno (1100), unchartered, medicine; Bologna (1119), unchartered, law; Modena (1116), unchartered, law; Naples (1224), chartered by Frederick II, four faculties.

France: Paris (1200), unchartered, four faculties; Toulouse (1200), chartered by Pope Gregory IX, four faculties; Montpellier (1196), chartered by Pope Nicholas IV (1289).

England: Oxford (1140); Cambridge (1109?); the former charter by John I (1201), the latter by Henry III (1231); both schools were the outgrowth of earlier monastic schools; dates of founding involved in doubt.

Spain: Salamanca (1243), chartered by Ferdinand III, King of Castile; Valencia (1245), chartered by James I, King of Aragon; Seville (1254), chartered by Alonzo X, King of Castile.

Germany and Austria: Prague (1348), chartered by Pope Clement VI and Charles IV; Vienna (1365), chartered by Rodolphus IV and Pope Urban V; Cologne (1388), chartered by Pope Urban VI.

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

1. Explain the meaning of Scholasticism.
2. Who were the leaders among the schoolmen? Name some of their writings.
3. In what subjects of study were the schoolmen most interested?
4. In what did Scotists and Thomists differ?
5. How did scholasticism influence educational theory and practice?
6. What effect had scholasticism upon the Church?
7. To what was this second revival of learning due?
8. Why should the name of Abelard receive mention among great educators?

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"Beginning as the hand-maid of the Church, and stimulated by the enthusiasm of the great popular monastic orders, painting was at first devoted to embodying the thoughts of Mediæval Christianity. In proportion as the painters fortified themselves by study of the natural world, their art became more secular. Mysticism gave way to realism. It was felt that much beside religious sentiment was worthy of expression." J. A. Symonds, *Renaissance in Italy*; *Fine Arts*, p. 185.

1. Account for the Renaissance.
2. Describe briefly the more important phases of this period.
3. In what fields of activity was there a decided revival?
4. What was the immediate effect of the Renaissance on the methods of instruction?
5. Note in particular the growth of the national spirit; language, literature, government, schools.
6. Describe the life and schools of the Bacchants, or wandering students.
7. What nation led in the schools of the Renaissance period?

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STURM (1507-1589).

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1. What is known as Humanism? How different from Classicism? From Realism?
2. Account for Sturm's great success as a teacher—Rector of the Gymnasium at Strassburg, 1537-1582.
3. Outline his course of study. How does it compare with the present high school course?

CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL IDEALS. RABELAIS (1483-1553). MONTAIGNE (1553-1592).

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 Lafleur, P. T. Rabelais. Andover Rev., 15:215.
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Note especially the educational views of Rabelais, as expressed in his "Life of Gargantua," and of Montaigne, as expressed in his essay on "The Education of Children." What is your criticism of these views.

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QUESTIONS.

1. What were the principal causes which led to the Reformation?
2. What new ideas did the Reformation present?
3. Were these favorable or unfavorable to popular education? Specify.
4. What part did Feudalism play in the Reformation?
5. In what ways and to what extent did Luther assist in advancing education?
6. What important educational tendencies in his times did Luther fail to recognize?
7. Why was the association of Luther and Melancthon an exceptionally fortunate one?
8. Compare the educational views of Luther with those of Erasmus, Zwingli, Calvin and Melancthon.
9. What were the most important educational principles advocated by these Protestant reformers?
10. What system of schools in England was largely the outgrowth of the Reformation?

Luther on Compulsory Education.

"It is my opinion that the authorities are bound to force their subjects to send their children to school. . . . If they can oblige their able-bodied subjects to carry the lance and the arquebuse, to mount the ram-parts, and do military service, for a much better reason may they, and ought they, to force their subjects to send their children to school, for here it is a question of a much more terrible war with the devil." . . .

And again he says: "You ask, Is it possible to get along without our children and bring them up like gentlemen? Is it not necessary that they work at home? I reply: I by no means approve of those schools where a child was accustomed to pass twenty or thirty years in studying Donatus and Alexander without learning. Another world has dawned, in which things go differently. My opinion is that we must send the boys to school one or two hours and have the boys learn a trade at home for the rest of the time."

ROGER ASCHAM (1515-1566) AND CLASSICAL LEARNING.

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 tors, p. 182.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the condition of society in the time of Ascham?
2. How general was education?
3. What means had been provided for the education of the people?
4. What were the subjects of study?
5. Why should Ascham be classed among educators? Why among classicists?

6. Name other educators who held somewhat similar views.
7. What incident caused Ascham to write the "Schoolmaster?"
8. What are the strong arguments in favor of classical learning?
9. Compare the educational views of Milton, as expressed in his "Tractate," with those of Robert Ascham in the "Scholemaster."

Extract from the "Scholemaster."

"After the child has learned perfectly the eight parts of speech, let him then learn the right joining together of substantives with adjectives, the noun with the verb, the relative with the antecedent. And by learning further his syntax, by my advice, he shall not use the common order in common schools for making of Latin, whereby the child commonly learneth, first, an evil choice of words ('a right choice of words,' saith Caesar, 'is the foundation of eloquence'), then a wrong placing of words, and, lastly, an ill-framing of the sentence, with a perverse judgment both of words and of sentences. These faults taking root in youth, cannot be plucked away in age. Moreover, there is no one thing that hath more either dulled the wits, or taken away the will of children from learning than the care they have to satisfy their masters in making of Latin.

For the scholar is commonly beat for the making, when the master were more worthy to be beat for the mending, or rather, marring of the same, the master many times being as ignorant as the child what to say properly and fitly to the matter." Book 1.

"The way prescribed in this book being straight, plain and easy, the scholar is always laboring with pleasure and ever going right on forward with profit. Always laboring, I say, for when he has construed, parsed, twice translated over by good advisement, he shall have necessary occasion to read over every lecture a dozen times at least; which, because he shall do always in order, he shall do it always with pleasure, and pleasure allureth love."

"When, by this diligent and speedy reading over those forenamed good books of Tully, Terrence, Caesar and Livy, and by this second kind of translating out of English, time shall bring skill and use shall bring perfection, then you may try, if you will, your scholar with the third kind of translation, although the first two ways, by my opinion, be not only sufficient of themselves, but also surer, both for the master's teaching and the scholar's learning, than this third way is, which is thus: Write you in English some letter, as it were from his father, or to some other friend, naturally according to the disposition of the child, or some tale, or fable, or plain narration, and let him translate it into Latin again, abiding in such a place where no other scholar may prompt him. Use yourself such discretion for choice therein as the matter may be within the compass, both of words and sentences, of his former learning and reading." Book 2.

FRANCIS BACON AND THE REVOLT AGAINST CLASSI-
CISM: INDUCTION AS THE METHOD OF
SCIENTIFIC INQUIRY.

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QUESTIONS.

1. In what ways did Bacon aid in the advancement of learning?
2. Why was the time especially ripe for his doctrine?

3. Was his moral life in keeping with his writings and the spirit of the time?

4. What language did Bacon use in his writings? Why?

5. Name a few pedagogical principles advanced by Bacon.

6. What other educators were prominent in the change from classical learning?

7. How do you account for the various changes in educational theory and practice?

Macaulay says that two words form the key of the Baconian doctrine: utility and progress.

Extract from Bacon.

"Man being the servant and interpreter of nature, can understand so much, and so much only as he has in fact or in thought of the course of nature; beyond this he neither knows anything nor can he do anything." *Novum Organum.*

"Certainly custom is most perfect when it beginneth in young years; this we call education, which is, in effect, but an early custom." *Essay on Education.*

LOYOLA AND THE SCHOOLS OF THE JESUITS.

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QUESTIONS.

1. Give the part played by Loyola in establishing the order of Jesuits.
2. What special qualifications did he possess for his work?
3. What was the aim of the Jesuit schools?
4. What were the chief subjects of instruction? What age and class of students were included in their provisions?
5. How were these schools maintained? How controlled, and how supplied with teachers and students?
6. Describe what seem to be the principal features in their method of instruction and manner of discipline?
7. Account for the rapid spread and influence of the Jesuit Schools.
8. What estimate was placed upon these schools by the leading men of the times?
9. In what way were the Jesuit schools especially strong? Wherein were they weak?
10. How would you characterize the ideal man and woman of the times?

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QUESTIONS ON THE JANSENISTS.

1. Compare the schools of the Jansenists with those of the Jesuits. Characterize their principal difference in subject-matter, method of instruction, discipline, aim, influence, etc.
2. What prominent leaders of thought were directly or indirectly connected with the schools of the Jansenists?
3. How did the suppression of these schools affect education?

Suggestions and Questions on the Study of Fenelon.

1. (a) Advantages of birth, environment and education.
 (b) Fenelon as a scholar, as a teacher, and as a writer.
 (c) State of society and condition of education in time of Fenelon.

- (d) Leaders of thought during Fenelon's time.
- 2. (a) What was the nature of Fenelon's *Education of Girls*? *Télémaque*, *Fables*, and *Dialogues of the Dead*?
- (b) How were these writings received at the time?
- (c) How are they held to-day?
- 3. What were some of the best educational ideas advanced by Fenelon?
- 4. In what way was Fenelon connected with Bossuet, Madame de Maintenon, Madame Guyon?

RATICH (1571-1635) AND COMENIUS (1592-1671).

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- Shoup, W. J. History and Science of Education, p. 217.
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Watson, F. Comenius. Acad., 43:149.

Williams, S. G. History of Modern Education, p. 154 ff.

SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

Ratich is remembered chiefly through his method of teaching foreign languages (which see), by means of which he was able to teach Latin, Greek and Hebrew in six months; also an account of his giving precedence to the mother-tongue over other languages. A summary of the essential pedagogical principles of Ratich is given in Quick's Educational Reformers; also in Barnard's American Journal of Education.

1. What is your criticism of these principles and of his method of teaching language?

Ratich and Comenius were heirs to the educational thought of Luther and the Reformers; to the classicism of Sturm, Erasmus, and Ascham; to the systematic schools of the Jesuits, and to the change from the classics, as seen in Rabelais, Montaigne and Bacon. It remained for Comenius to unite the philosophy of Bacon with the democratic, or individualistic, view of Luther into a system of public education.

2. Comenius' birth, environment, early education and character; his various wanderings and disappointments?

3. What was the nature of his most important writings?

4. What were the essential principles of the pedagogy of Comenius?

5. What new ideas in education did he advance?

6. What would you give as the educational ideal of Comenius?

ORBIS SENSUALIUM PICTUS.¹

A World of Things Obvious to the Senses Drawn in Pictures.

I.

Invitation—The Master and the Boy. Invitatio—Magister et Puer.

Boy.

M. Come, boy, learn to be wise.

M. Veni, Puer, disce sapere.

B. What doth this mean, to be wise?

P. Quid hoc est, Sapere?

M. To understand rightly, to do rightly, and to speak all things that are necessary.

M. Intelligere recte, agere recte, et eloqui recte omnia necessaria.

B. Who will teach me this?

P. Quis docebit me hoc?

M. I, by God's help.

M. Ego, cum Deo.

B. How?

P. Quomodo?

M. I will guide thee through all.

M. Ducam te per omnia.

I will show thee all.

Ostendam tibi omnia.

I will name thee all.

Nominabo tibi omnia.

¹ Sample copy of the first and last lessons of the Orbis Pictus by Comenius, as published by C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, N. Y.

B. See, here I am; lead me, in the name of God.

M. Before all things, thou oughtest to learn the plain sounds, of which man's speech consisteth; which living creatures know to make, and thy tongue knoweth how to imitate, and thy hand can picture out.

Afterwards we will go into the world, and we will view all things.

Here thou hast a lively and vocal alphabet.

The Close.

Thus thou hast seen, in short, all things that can be showed, and hast learned the chief words of the English and Latin tongues.

Go on, now, and read other good *Books* diligently, and thou shalt become *learned, wise* and *godly*.

Remember these things: Fear God, and call upon Him, that He may bestow upon thee the Spirit of Wisdom. Farewell.

P. En, adsum; duc me in nomine Dei.

M. Ante omnia, debes discere simplices Sonos ex quibus Sermo humanus constat; quos Animalia sciunt formare, et tua Lingua scit imitari, et tua Manus potest pingere.

Postea ibimus Mundum et spectabimus omnia.

Hic habes vivum et vocale Alphabetum.

CIII.

Clausula.

Ita vidisti summatim in res omnes quae poterunt ostendi, et didicisti voces primarias Anglicae et Latinae Linguae.

Perge nunc et lege diligenter alios bonos *Libros*, ut fias *doctus, sapiens*, et *pius*.

Memento horum; Deum time et invoca eum, ut largiatur tibi Spiritum Sapientiae. Vale.

JOHN LOCKE (1632-1704).

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- Compayré, G. *History of Pedagogy*, p. 194.
- Davidson, Thos. *History of Education*, p. 197 ff.
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- Hailmann, W. N. *Lectures on Education*, p. 63.
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Some Thoughts Concerning Education (see his works, vol. 8:6).
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Blackw., 39:796.
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- Painter, F. V. N. *History of Education*, 213 ff.
- Mark, H. T. *History of Educational Theories in England*. See Index. Locke.
- Munroe, J. P. *Educational Ideal*, p. 101.
- Payne, Jos. *History of Education*, 2:83, 170, 173.
- Quick, R. M. *Locke on Education*.
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Am. Jour. Educa., 6:209; 11:460.
- Russell, John E. *The Philosophy of Locke*.
- Schiller, H. *Lehrbuch der Geschichte der Pädagogik*, p. 143.
- Schmid, K. A. *Geschichte der Erziehung*, IV, pt. I.
- Seeley, L. *History of Education*, p. 220.
- Sonnenschein. *Cyclopedia of Education*, p. 197.
- Tate, T. *Philosophy of Education*, p. 30.
- Williams, S. G. *History of Modern Education*, p. 181.

SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

1. Birth, health, environment, education?

An accomplished humanist in education, he becomes an active scientist in thought and practice. Lectured at Oxford on Greek, Rhetoric, Philosophy. Student and teacher of children in the home of Lord Shaftsbury. As a result of this experience, gives forth his memorable "Thoughts Concerning Education." The essential principles of this work, which every teacher should read entire, are summed up by Compayré as follows: "*a*. In Physical Education, the Hardening Process. *b*. In Intellectual Education, Practical Utility. *c*. In Moral Education, the Principle of Honor set up as a rule for the Free Government of Man."

2. What do you understand by each of the above terms?

3. What other educational writers seem to have paved the way for Locke? In future lessons make note of educators who seem to get their inspiration from Locke.

Compayré speaks of Descartes as a spiritualist; of Malbranche, as an Idealist; and of Locke, as a Sensationalist.

4. What are the meanings of these terms?

5. What is your opinion of the characterization?

6. How would faith in one or the other ideal influence the theory and practice of education?

7. Prepare a synopsis of the more important principles given in the "Thoughts Concerning Education." Designate those with which you agree by the letter "*a*," and others by the letter "*b*."

8. How did these principles of Locke differ from the practices of his time? How do they differ from the practices of to-day?

Extracts from "Thoughts Concerning Education."

"Play in the open air has but one danger that I know: and that is, that when he is hot from running up and down, he should sit or lie down on the moist or cold earth. This, I grant, and drinking cold water when they are hot with labor or exercise, brings more people to the grave, or the brink of it, by fevers or other diseases, than anything I know."

"And thus I have done with what concerns the body and health, which reduces itself to these few and easily-observed rules: plenty of open air, exercise, sleep, and plain diet, no wine or strong drink, and very little or no physic, not too warm and straight clothing, especially the *head* and *feet* kept cold, and the feet often used to cold water and exposed to wet."

"Having under consideration how great the influence of company is, and how prone we are, especially children, to imitation, I must here take the liberty to mind parents of this one thing, viz., that he that will have his son have great respect for him and his orders, must himself

have a great reverence for his son. You must do nothing before him which you would not have him imitate."

"That which every gentleman (that takes any care of his education) desires for his son, besides the estate he leaves him, is contained, I suppose, in these four things: *virtue, wisdom, breeding, and learning.*

"You will wonder, perhaps, that I put learning last, especially when I tell you that I think it the least part. This may seem strange in the mouth of a bookish man. . . . When I consider what ado is made over a little Latin and Greek, how many years are spent upon it, and what a noise and business it makes to no purpose, I can hardly forbear thinking that the parents of children still live in fear of the schoolmaster's rod, which they look on as the only instrument of education."

ROUSSEAU (1712-1778).

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- Carlyle, Thos. Heroes, p. 214.
Character of Rousseau. Nat. Mag., 3:257.
- Carlyle, Thos. The Hero in Literature, in Heroes and Hero Worship.
- Caird, E. Character of Rousseau. Contemp., 30:625.
- Compayré, G. History of Pedagogy, p. 278; also lectures on teaching (see index).
- Davidson, Thos. Rousseau; also History of Education, p. 211.
- Eggleston, Edw. The Schoolmaster in Literature, p. 41.
- Everett, A. H. Life of Rousseau. North Am. Rev., 15:1.
- Finch, C. E. Rousseau. Jour. of Educa. (Boston), 45:19; also 46:211 (Emile).
- Garrison, W. P. Rousseau. Harper, 58:229; Nation, 51:233.
Genius and Character of Rousseau. Blackw., 11:137.
- Hallam, H. Introduction to the Literature of Europe, 3:218.
- Hobbes, T. Leviathan.
- Hailmann, W. N. Lectures on Education, p. 74.
- Huxley, T. H. Natural Inequality of Man. 19th Cent., 27:1.
- Kemp, E. L. History of Education, p. 255.
- Kiddle & Schem. Cyclopedia of Education, p. 745.
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- Locke, J. Treatise on Civil Government, 4:338 of Locke's Works.
- Morley, John. Rousseau, vol. 1, ch. 5; vol. 2, ch. 3, 4.
Influence of Rousseau on European Thought. Fortn. Rev., 17:494.
- Munroe, J. P. Educational Ideal, p. 153.
- Painter, F. V. N. History of Education, p. 247.
- Payne, Jos. History of Education, vol. 2, p. 84.
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Acad., 45:267; 53:404; 54:267. Critic, 30:93.
Dial, 25:261. Nation, 66:133, 391; 75:362. Sat. Rev., 86:416. Educa. Rev., 16:192. Pop. Sci. Mo., 53:848.
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- Saintsbury, G. Jean Jacques Rousseau. *Encyc. Brit.*, 21:23.
- Seeley, L. History of Education, p. 241.
- Shoup, W. J. History and Science of Education, p. 224.
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- Street, A. E. Rousseau's Theory of Education. *Educa. Rev.*, 5:278-290.
- Sonnenschein. *Cyclopedia of Education*, p. 348.
- Schmid, K. A. *Encyklopaedie des Gesamnten Erziehungs- und Unterrichtswesens*, Rousseau, 7:284; also, *Geschichte der Erziehung*, IV, pt. 1.
- Weir, S. Key to Rousseau's *Emile*. *Educa. Rev.*, 16:61.
- Williams, S. G. History of Education, p. 261.

SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

1. Early life, education and character; the nature and influence of his associates; the condition of society during this period; his wanderings, ingratitude and enigmas?
2. His writings—their nature and influence?
3. The *Emile*: Its nature, leading principles, and influence upon education?
4. Who were the forerunners of Rousseau?
5. How did Rousseau differ from them?
6. Name some of the contemporary writers and philosophers.
7. What was the principal difference between the teachings of Rousseau and those of Helvetius?
8. Were the principles advocated by Rousseau new?
9. How do you account for his great influence upon humanity?
10. What are some of the merits and some of the defects of Rousseau's teachings, as seen in *Emile*?
11. According to Rousseau, what is the ideal, or end of education?
12. In education, shall we follow or direct nature? Why?

Rousseau, speaking of his early reading, says: "There began to be formed within me that heart, at once so proud and tender, that effeminate, but yet indomitable character which, ever oscillating between weakness and courage, between indulgence and virtue, has, to the last, placed me in contradiction with myself, and has brought it to pass that abstinence and enjoyment, pleasure and wisdom, have alike eluded me."

Again he says: "I do evil, but I love good. My heart is pure."

Extracts from the Emile.

"Coming from the hand of the author of all things, everything is good; in the hands of man, everything degenerates."

"In the natural order of things, all men being equal, the vocation common to all is the state of manhood; and whoever is well trained for that cannot fill badly any vocation which depends upon it."

"He among us who best knows how to bear the good and evil fortunes of life, is, in my opinion, the best educated; whence it follows that true education consists less in precept than in practice. We begin to instruct ourselves when we begin to live; our education commences with the beginning of our lives; our first teacher is our nurse."

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

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 Barnard, Henry. Public Instruction in France, 1789-1808. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 22:651.
 Buisson, F. *Dictionnaire de Pédagogie*, vol. 2, pt. 1.
 Carlyle, Thos. The French Revolution.
 Compayré, G. History of Pedagogy, chaps. 16, 17.
 DeToqueville, Alexis. On the Causes of the French Revolution; also (Review) Putnam, 8:471.
 Dobson, Austin. Four French Women.
 Mason, Amelia G. Salons of the Revolution and the Empire. *Cent.*, 19:803; 20:12.
 Morley, John. Edmund Burke.
 Painter, F. V. N. History of Education, p. 296.
 Stephens, H. M. History of the French Revolution.
 Taine, H. A. Paris before the Outbreak of the French Revolution. *Contemp.*, 32:234.
 The French Revolution, 1.
 The Conditions of the People on the Eve of the Great Revolution, A. D. 1789. In *History for Ready Reference*, 2:1256.
 Williams, S. G. History of Modern Education, chaps. 11, 12.

Following closely on the publication of Rousseau's *Emile*, was the publication of La Chalotais' essay on "National Education." This little book was favorably received by the philosophers and educators of the time, and was thoroughly imbued with the revolutionary spirit. It gave occasion to the ideas of secularization, centralization, uniformity, obligation, gratuity, which were destined to play such a large part in the educational discussions of the Revolution. In speaking of secularization of education, La Chalotais says: "I do not presume to exclude ecclesiastics, but I protest against the exclusion of laymen. I dare claim for the nation an education which depends only on the state, because it belongs essentially to the state; because every state has an inalienable and indefensible right to instruct its members; because, finally, the children of the state ought to be educated by the members of the state." Again he says: "Education cannot be too widely diffused, to the end that there may be no class of citizens who may not be brought to participate in its benefits. It is expedient that *each citizen receive the education which is adapted to his needs.*"

Rolland, in commenting on the necessity of establishing a central uniform system of education, says: "Through uniformity of instruction, there will be secured a uniformity in manners and in laws. The

young men of all the provinces will divest themselves of all their prejudices of birth; they will form the same ideas of virtue and justice. They will demand uniform laws, which would have offended their fathers." Turgot, in his memoirs to the king (1775), says: "Without opposing any obstacle to the instructions whose object is higher, and which already have their rules and their expounders, I think I can propose to you nothing of more advantage to your people than to cause to be given to all your subjects an instruction which shows them the obligations they owe to society and to your power which protects them, the duties which these obligations impose upon them, and the interest they have in fulfilling those duties for the public good and their own."

1. In the discussion of secularization, centralization, obligation, gratuity, etc., what were the leading arguments?
2. What was the final outcome?
3. What were some of the difficulties encountered in organizing a system of public instruction?
4. What provisions were made for the training of teachers?
5. What provisions were made for the education of women?
6. Did the French Revolution tend to advance or retard education?

Why?

PESTALOZZI (1745-1827).

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- Pestalozzi's Poor School at Neuhof. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 3:585.
- Boutwell, G. S. The Pestalozzian System. *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, 44:55.
- Bradley, J. C. Pestalozzi, the Teacher of Children. *Educa.*, 11:352, 423.
- Brown, N. Pestalozzi's Leonard and Gertrude. *Educa.*, 15:176.
- Browning, O. Educational Theories (Appleton), pp. 151-165; (Kellogg), p. 170.
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- Channing, Eva. Translation of Pestalozzi's Leonard and Gertrude.
- Compayré, G. History of Pedagogy, p. 413.
- Davidson, Thos. History of Education, p. 229.
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- Diesterweg, F. A. W. Pestalozzi and the Schools of Germany. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 4:343.
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- Hailmann, W. N. Lectures on Education, p. 93.
- From Pestalozzi to Froebel. *Proc. N. E. A.*, 1880, p. 128-137.
- Hamilton, C. J. Henri Pestalozzi. *Educa. Rev.*, 3:173-184.
- Harris, W. T. Herbart and Pestalozzi Compared. *Educa. Rev.*, 5:417-423.
- Holland, Lucy E., and Turner, F. C. Translation of Pestalozzi's How Gertrude Teaches Her Children.
- Kemp, E. L. History of Education, p. 282.
- Kiddle & Schem. Cyclopedia of Education, p. 693.
- Klemm, L. R. Interview between Dr. Bell and Pestalozzi. *Educa.*, 7:559-562.
- Krusi, Hermann. Pestalozzi; His Life, Work, and Influence. Memoir of Hermann Krusi (1775-1844). *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 5:161.
- Monroe, W. S. Joseph Neef and Pestalozzianism in America. *Educa.*, 14:449-461.
- Munroe, J. P. Educational Ideal, p. 179.
- Painter, F. V. N. History of Education, p. 266.
- Payne, Jos. History of Education, 2:97.
- Pestalozzi. Account of His Own Educational Experiences. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 7:671, 703, 712, 715.

- Pestalozzi. *Evening Hours of a Hermit*. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 6:169.
- Pestalozzi's *System of Education, Methods, etc.* Blackw., 66:93; *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 7:675, 503; 521 (Leonard and Gertrude); 665 (Christopher and Alice); 669 (How Gertrude Teaches Her Children); *Paternal Instruction*, 720; *Student Life at Yverdun under Pestalozzi*, 31:35; *Edinb. Rev.*, 47:118.
- School in Bonnal*. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 7:651.
- Pestalozzi in the United States. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 30:561.
- Bibliography of Pestalozzian Literature*. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 7:513.
- Quick, R. *Educational Reformers* (Appleton), ch. 16; (Kellogg), ch. 7.
- Raumer, K. G. von. Karl Wilhelm Christian von Turk. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 5:155.
- Life and Educational System of Pestalozzi*. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 3:401; 4:65.
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- Valentine F. Trotzendorf. *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 5:107.
- Rein, Wm. Pestalozzi and Herbart. *Forum*, 21:346-360.
- Schmid, K. A. *Encyklopaedie des Gesamten Erziehungs- und Unterrichtswesen*, 2:578; 5:756.
- Seeley, L. *History of Education*, pp. 257-271.
- Syffarth, L. W. *Pestalozzi's Sammtliche Werke*, 16 vols., 1872.
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- Williams, S. G. *History of Education*, p. 299-316.

SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

We should not omit, in our study, Francke and the Schools of the Pietists, nor his disciples, Niemeyer, Semler and Hecker, who in turn were the founders of the real schools of Germany, the natural outgrowth of the scientific spirit.

For references see *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 3:275; 5:441, 691, 695; 8:52, 352; 10:110; 13:496, 502; 19:630; 20:338, 369.

We should also include the work of Basedow and the Philanthropists. For references see *Am. Jour. Educa.*, 5:487; 26:557.

Pestalozzi as a child; effect of the early environment upon his character. Pestalozzi as a student; as an agriculturalist; as a philanthropist. His experiments with his son. Pestalozzi at Neuhoof; at Stanz; at Burgdorf; at Yverdun. Pestalozzi as a writer; as a teacher; as an inspirer of men.

1. What prominent educators of the time were associated with, or influenced by, Pestalozzi?

2. Compare Rousseau with Pestalozzi as to character, teaching and influence.

3. What were some of the things that exerted great influence in shaping Pestalozzi's character?

4. What was the leading motive of his life?

5. What do you understand from Pestalozzi's idea of educating the head, the hand, the heart?

6. Also from his three divisions of knowledge, *i. e.*, form, number, sound?

7. In what consists his greatest influence?

Read the following chapters from Leonard and Gertrude:

Chap. 1. A weak man, a brave woman, and a fatherly ruler.

Chap. 2. A tyrant appears and finds his master.

Chap. 8. A good mother's Saturday evening.

Chap. 25. Gertrude's method of instruction.

Chap. 31. The organization of a new school.

"Seeking to understand the real aim of life, the real motive of that work which took such entire possession of me that I found no rest in anything else, I seemed to hear an internal voice saying that it was the need to free man from the sensual domination of his animal nature, and raise him above the view of his being.

"That which I long for and seek after, that which is holy, unchanging and eternal in the aim of my life, is in no way mine: it is humanity's and God's. What am I—what are we all—in such a work as this? A nothing, that passes with the moment, like the insect of a day." From a discourse of Pestalozzi, 1817.

HERBART (1770-1841).

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- Browning, O. *Educational Theories*, p. 174.
- Davidson, Thos. *History of Education*, p. 232.
- DeGarmo, Chas. *Coördination of Studies.* *Educa. Rev.*, 4:422-437.
- Herbart and the Herbartians, and *Essentials of Method.*
- Herbartian System of Pedagogics. *Educa. Rev.*, 1:33-45, 244-252, 453-462.
- Significance of Herbart for Secondary and Higher Education. *Educa. Rev.*, 11:40.
- DeGarmo, McMurry, Noss and others. *Herbart and Herbartianism.* *Jour. of Educa.* (Boston), 47:259-264.
- Douglas, C. H. *Views of Herbart on Mathematics and Natural Science.* *Educa. Rev.*, 3:490.
- Gilbert, C. B. *Some Suggestions to Herbartian Teachers.* *Educa.*, 14:75.
- Harris, W. T. *Herbart's Doctrine of Interest.* *Educa. Rev.*, 10:71-80.
- Correlation.* *Educa. Rev.*, 9:274.
- Herbart and Pestalozzi.* *Educa. Rev.*, 5:417-423.
- Herbart, J. F. *Science of Education* (Felkin's translation). *Text-Book on Psychology.*
- Hughes, J. L. *Herbart and Froebel.* *Educa. Rev.*, 10:239.
- Kemp, E. L. *History of Education*, p. 298.
- Lange, A. F., and DeGarmo, Chas. *Herbart's Outline of Educational Doctrine.*
- Lange, K. *Apperception, a Monograph on Psychology and Pedagogy.*
- Lukens, H. T. *Correlation of Studies.* *Educa. Rev.*, 10:364. Also discussion by W. S. Jackman. *Educa. Rev.*, 11:72.
- McMurry, C. A. *Elements of General Method Based on the Principles of Herbart* (revised edition); also related works on Special Methods.
- Geography as a School Subject.* *Educa. Rev.*, 9:448.
- McMurry, F. M. *Concentration.* *Educa. Rev.*, 9:27.
- Munroe, J. P. *Educational Ideal*, pp. 89, 189, 201.
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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

1. Herbart's early life and education.
2. Herbart as a student, as a teacher in the home of Herr von Steiger, and as a university professor.
3. Herbart as a philosopher and writer.
4. What changes were occurring in education during this period? *Jour. of Spec. Philosophy*, 10:166.
5. What leaders in education were contemporary with Herbart?
6. What are the chief educational doctrines of Herbart?
7. Were these new or only differently clothed?
8. What would you give as his educational ideal?
9. What would you consider the most helpful thing he did for education?
10. How have his ideas been received in Germany? In America?
11. How do you account for this?
12. How did Herbart differ from Rousseau and Pestalozzi?

Herbartianism and Instruction.

1. What does Herbartianism include?
2. Define interest as used by Herbart?
3. What do you understand as the meaning of apperception?
4. What other terms are similarly used?
5. Explain the formal steps of instruction. Of what importance are they to the recitation?
6. What do you understand by Concentration, Culture Epoch, Correlation, Coördination, etc.? Why are these terms associated with the name of Herbart?
7. What form of coördination appeals to you?
8. What is your criticism of Herbartianism?
9. How do you account for the seeming lack of appreciation of Herbartianism in Europe and the greater interest in this country?

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

Froebel, a student of Pestalozzi, was also an original thinker and admirable teacher.

1. His early life, environment, education and character? The following outline, to be filled in and enlarged in class, is given as a guide to the above topic:

Frederick Wilhelm August Froebel, son of a Lutheran minister, born April 21, 1782. His mother dying during his infancy, he is left to the care of servants and (age 4) to a stepmother. Educated by his uncle in the town school of Stadt-Ilm, from his tenth year to his fourteenth; spends two years in surveying and forestry, and nearly two years in mathematics and science at the University of Jena; accepts a position as clerk of forestry at Bamberg, and later becomes an accountant of a large estate near Baireuth.

He begins, in 1805, through the advice of his brother, the study of architecture at Frankfort-on-the-Main. Here he meets Dr. Gruner, who discovers that he is a born teacher. Through Dr. Gruner's advice he gives up architecture and enters Frankfort Model School as a teacher. Dr. Gruner is a disciple of Pestalozzi, and through him Froebel visits Pestalozzi at Yverdon, and is delighted, puzzled, dissatisfied. Two years later Froebel resigns his position in the Frankfort schools to devote his time to making himself a better teacher, but accepts complete charge of the three sons of Frau Holzhausen. He tries to follow in their education Rousseau's idea of isolation, but becomes dissatisfied with the principle, and spends two years with the boys at Yverdon, under the shadow of the institute. Finishing his task with the boys in 1811, he enters Göttingen University to devote himself to further study of language and science. In 1812 he enters the University of Berlin, where he soon becomes an assistant to Professor Weiss in natural history and mineralogy. In 1813 he enters the Prussian army against France, and becomes intimately acquainted with Middendorff and Langethal. He resigns his university position in 1816 to open his "Universal German Educational Institute" at Griesheim, later at Kielhau, where he becomes the private tutor of the five sons of his two brothers, Christopher and Christian.

1. Compare the life and work of Froebel with that of Rousseau and of Pestalozzi.

2. With Rousseau and Pestalozzi the emotions swayed the intellect. How was this in regard to Froebel?

3. Describe Froebel as a writer, teacher, philosopher.

4. Describe the school at Kielhau.

5. What are the leading educational works of Froebel?

6. What are some of the important educational principles found in his "Education of Man?"

7. What was Froebel's leading educational ideal? Upon what philosophical belief was it based?

8. Although anticipated before, the Kindergarten was Froebel's best gift to humanity. What benefit to the child did Froebel hope to gain by the Kindergarten?

9. What are the Gifts and Occupations, and their purposes?

10. Name some of the strong and some of the weak points of the kindergarten, as at present conducted.

11. Froebel believed that children were elevated by mutual association, while Rousseau believed that such association would be injurious. Which is right?

EDUCATION OF WOMEN AND WOMEN AS EDUCATORS.
THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Among the prominent changes in educational thought at the close of the 18th century was the increasing belief in universal education, including the principles of gratuity, obligation, secularization, and centralization. Note in regard to centralization the establishment of the Imperial University of France, with its feeders, the National System of Education of Germany, the beginning of the Monitorial System in England, and the development of the State Systems in the United States, etc. Compare these systems of education with our own of to-day.

Up to the closing years of the 18th century, the education of girls was almost wholly neglected. The instruction of children and the education of women was rarely considered necessary. Among the things for which the nineteenth century will be remembered is the advance in the education of women and the greater attention given to the education of children.

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1. Account for the rapid increase of woman's influence in education.
2. Who were some of the women educators ushering in the change?
3. Upon what phases of education did their writings principally treat?
4. What ideas advanced by them of woman's place and work are held to be true to-day?
5. Compare the educational views of Maria Edgeworth with those of Froebel.
6. To what do you attribute the increasing importance placed upon the education of women at the beginning of the 19th century?

Madame de Remusat's Characterization of Women.

"We lack continuity and depth when we would apply ourselves to general questions. Endowed with a quick intelligence, we hear promptly, and we even divine and see just as well as men; but too easily moved to remain impartial, too mobile to be profound, perceiving is easier for us than observing. Prolonged attention wearies us; we are, in short, more mild than patient. More sensitive and more devoted than men, women are ignorant of that sort of selfishness which an independent being exhibits outwardly as a consciousness of his own power. To obtain from them any activity whatever, it is almost always necessary to interest them in the happiness of another. Their very faults are the outgrowths of their condition. The same cause will excite in man emotions of pride, and in woman only those of vanity." Compayré's History of Pedagogy, p. 488.

BELL (1753-1832) AND LANCASTER (1778-1838); OR, THE
MONITORIAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.

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1. Give an account of the origin and manner of conducting the monitorial system.
2. What are its advantages? Its disadvantages?
3. How do you account for the rapid spread of the system?
4. Is the monitorial system now used outside of Sunday-school work?
5. What was the general condition of education at the beginning of the 19th century? What provisions were made for the preparation of teachers?

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

1. Herbert Spencer's early life and education; writings; influence in changing thought?
2. The conditions of education in England at the beginning of this period?
3. What new view of life and of society was just beginning to dawn?
4. In what field of thought has Spencer been most prominent?

*A Study of Spencer's Education.*CHAPTER I. *What knowledge is of the most worth?*

1. What is the importance of knowing the relative value of studies? How is this value to be determined?

2. What is Spencer's ideal of education?

3. Does a knowledge of the laws of health prolong life?

"Thus to the question with which we set out—What knowledge is of the most worth?—the uniform reply is, Science. This is the verdict on all the counts.

"For the direct preservation, or the maintenance of life and health, the all-important knowledge is—Science.

"For that indirect self-preservation which we call gaining a livelihood, the knowledge of the greatest value is—Science.

"For the due discharge of parental functions, the proper guidance is to be found only in—Science.

"For that interpretation of national life, past and present, without which the citizen cannot rightly regulate his conduct, the indispensable key is—Science. Alike for the most perfect production and highest enjoyment of art in all its forms, the needful preparation is still—Science. And for the purposes of discipline, intellectual, moral, religious, the most efficient study is, once more—Science."

"We do not mean to say that these divisions are definitely separable. We do not deny that they are intricately entangled with each other in such way that there can be no training for any that is not, in some measure, a training for all. Nor do we question that for each division there are portions more important than certain portions of the preceding divisions."

1. What is included under the term Science?

2. Give the principal arguments upon which the above conclusions are reached?

3. What is your criticism of the chapter?

CHAPTER II. *Intellectual Education.*

"Were we in possession of the true method, divergence from it would, of course, be prejudicial; but the true method having to be found, the effects of the numerous independent seekers carrying out their researches in different directions constitute a better agency for finding it than any that could be devised."

"Of the three phases through which human opinion passes, the unanimity of the ignorant, the disagreement of the inquiring, and the unanimity of the wise—it is manifest that the second is the parent of the third."

"People are beginning to see that the first requisite to success in life is to be a good animal."

"In the acquirement of languages, the grammar-school plan is being superseded by plans based on the spontaneous process followed by the child in gaining its mother-tongue."

"There is a spreading opinion that the rise of an appetite for any

kind of knowledge implies that the unfolding mind has become fit to assimilate it, and needs it for the purpose of growth; and that, on the other hand, the disgust felt toward any kind of knowledge is a sign that it is prematurely presented, or that it is presented in an indigestible form."

"But if there is a more worthy aim for us than to become drudges; if there are other uses in the things around us than their power to bring money; if there are higher faculties to be exercised than acquisitive and sensual ones; if the pleasures which poetry, art and science, and philosophy can bring are of any moment, then it is desirable that the instinctive inclination which every child shows to observe natural beauties and investigate phenomena should be encouraged."

4. What should be the range of object lessons?

5. What are some of the most helpful suggestions in the chapter on "Intellectual Education?"

CHAPTER III. *Moral Education.*

1. What is the use of ideals in education?

2. What does Spencer consider to be the true aim in moral education?

3. What are natural punishments? Are they uniform and just?

4. How is the law of natural consequences to be applied by parent and teacher?

5. When is Nature's method of discipline violated by society?

6. What is your opinion of Spencer's views as expressed in the chapter on Moral Education?

"From whatever basis they start, all theories of morality agree in considering that conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are beneficial, is good conduct; while the conduct whose total results, immediate and remote, are injurious, is bad conduct."

Advantages, as enumerated by Spencer, to be obtained by the application of the principle of natural consequences in discipline: "First, that it gives that rational comprehension of right and wrong which results from actual experience of the good and bad consequences caused by them."

"Second, that the child, suffering nothing more than the painful effects brought upon it by its own wrong actions, must recognize, more or less clearly, the justice of the penalties."

"Third, that, recognizing the justice of the penalties, and receiving those penalties through the workings of things, rather than at the hands of an individual, its temper will be less disturbed; while the parent, occupying the comparatively passive position of taking care that the natural penalties are felt, will preserve a comparative equanimity."

"Fourth, that, mutual exasperation being thus, in great measure, prevented, a much happier and more influential state of feelings will exist between parent and child."

"Command only in those cases in which other means are inapplicable, or have failed."

"Bear constantly in mind the truth that the aim of your discipline should be to produce a self-governing being—not to produce a being to be governed by others."

"Not only will you have constantly to analyze the motives of your children, but you will have to analyze your own motives—to discriminate between those internal suggestions springing from a true parental solicitude, and those which spring from your own selfishness. . . . In brief, you will have to carry on your higher education at the same time that you are educating your children."

CHAPTER IV. *Physical Education.*

1. Account for the greater interest manifested in the training of animals than of children.

2. Why is the physical development of children of so much importance?

3. To what organic laws are all living creatures subject?

4. Which is the more dangerous, under or over-feeding? Why?

5. What is the proper guide in determining the kind and amount of the child's food?

6. What are the best foods?

7. What is Spencer's view of the hardening process?

8. Does Spencer agree with Locke on physical education? Explain.

"But, paying due regard to those two qualifications, our conclusions are: that food of children should be highly nutritive, that it should be varied at each meal and at successive meals, and that it should be abundant."

"With clothing, as with food, the established tendency is towards an improper scantiness."

"Among the sensations serving for our guidance are those of heat and cold; and a clothing for children which does not carefully consult these sensations is to be condemned. The common notion about hardening is a grievous delusion."

"Our conclusions are, then, that while the clothing of children should never be in excess, so as to create oppressive warmth, it should always be sufficient to prevent any general feeling of cold."

"We do not yet sufficiently realize the truth that as, in this life of ours, the physical underlies the mental, the mental must not be developed at the expense of the physical."

ALEXANDER BAIN (1818—).

For references, see Card Catalogue and Pool's Index.

1. What are the most important divisions of his work on "Education as a Science?"
2. What is the nature and educational importance of his work?
3. Compare the educational views of Spencer and Bain.
4. Make a list of the three best references in the library on Bain as an educator.
5. Name a few other educational writers of England during this period who have won international fame.
6. What were some of the more important changes in the educational system of England during the 19th century?

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EARLY COLONIAL EDUCATION, 1607-1660.

a. Our European ancestors: English, Dutch, French, Spanish, Swedes, etc.

GENERAL DIRECTION FOR STUDY.

1. Who were they?
2. Whence did they come?
3. Where did they settle?
4. General intellectual development in their old homes, *i. e.*, educational conditions, including schools, educational and religious ideals?
5. Class of people who came?
6. Object in coming, whether for mere adventure, or to better their social, religious, or educational condition?
7. How did their new environments change their views of life?
8. What provisions did they make for education?
9. How did these differ from the educational conditions they left?

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"I have a . . . thrice seven years' experience in this despicable, but comfortable, employment of teaching Schoole. . . . But, alas, we that wholly undergo the burden of school-teaching, can tell by our own experience how laborious it is, both to mind and body, to be continually intent upon the work, and how irksome it is (especially to a man of quiet temper) to have so many unwilling provocations into passions; what good parts for learning and right qualifications in all points of behavior are required of us; how small our yearly stipend is, and how uncertain all our other incomes are. Again, we call to mind the too much indulgency of some parents, who neither love to blame their children's untowardness, nor suffer the Master to correct it. We remember their generall ingratitude for the Master's well-doing, and their open clamour for his least doing amisse; we observe their common indiscretion in wholly imputing the Scholar's lesse profiting to the Master's more neglect, and their own happy thriving to their own onely towardliness; not to mention their fond ambition in hastening them too fast. Besides, small account which the vulgar have, the too censorious eye which the more judicious cast, and the slight regard which our Academicians (for the most part) carry toward the poor School-Master makes us sometimes judge our calling (as many do) too mean for a scholar to undertake or desire to stick to too many years." *A New Discovery of the Old Art of Teaching Schoole*. By Charles Hoole. London, 1659.

"If any christian, so called, . . . shall contemptuously behave himself toward the word preached, or ye messengers thereof called to dispence ye same, in any congregation, . . . or, like a sonn of Corah, cast upon his true doctrine, or himself, any reproach, . . . shall for ye first scandole be convented . . . and bound to their good behaviour; and if a second time they breake forth into ye like contemptuous carriages, either to pay £5 to ye publike treasury, or to stand two houres openly upon a block 4 foote high, on a lecture day, with a pap fixed on the breast, with

this, "A WANTON GOSPELLER," written in capitall letters, yt others may fear and be ashamed of breaking out into the like wickedness." Records of Massachusetts, II:179 (4 Nov., 1646).

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SUGGESTIONS AND QUESTIONS.

Observe in your study the questions and suggestions as offered in the first outline on American education.

1. Whence originated our common school system?

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EDUCATION DURING COLONIAL PERIOD.

1. What provisions were made for elementary education in the different colonies?
2. To what extent were these early schools free?
3. What were the subjects of study, the kind of text-books, and the nature of the discipline and instruction?
4. How did the schools of the colonies differ from those of Europe during the same period?
5. Who were the teachers? How esteemed? How prepared? How supported?
6. Compare the provisions for education among the various settlements.
7. What other sources of education had the colonists?

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"Concerning the civilizing and instructing of the Indians in the knowledge of God and human learning, there is a small college of fabrick of brick erected at Cambridge, peculiarly appropriate to the Indians, which was built on the account, and by the order of the corporation. There are eight Indian youths (one whereof is in the college and ready to commence bachelior of arts), besides another in like capacity, a few months since, with several English, murdered by the Indians at Nantucket, and at other schools, some ready to come into the college, all which are maintained on the stock's account and charge."

"Touching other schools, there is by law enjoined a school to be kept and maintained in every town, and for such towns as are of 100 families they are required to have a grammar school. The country is generally well provided of schools."

"There are six towns of Indians within this jurisdiction, who profess Christian religion, who have lands and townships set forth and appropriated to them by this court. There are also persons appointed to govern and instruct them in civility and religion, and to decide controversies amongst them. The Sabbath is constantly kept by them, and they all attend to the publick worship of God. They have schools to teach their children to read and write in several of their towns, and many of their youth, and some older persons, can read and write. If you please to be an eye or ear witness of the truth of these things, we have appointed the persons that attend to this work to wait upon you and show you their towns and manners."

"May 11, 1665.

EDWARD RAWSON, *Sec'y.*"

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1. Harvard,	Massachusetts,	1637, Cong.
2. William and Mary,	Virginia,	1693, Episc.
3. Yale,	Connecticut,	1701, Cong.
4. Princeton,	New Jersey,	1746, Presby.
5. University of Pennsylvania,	Pennsylvania,	1749, Non-sec.
6. Columbia,	New York,	1754, Episc.
7. Brown,	Rhode Island,	1764, Bap.
8. Dartmouth,	New Hampshire,	1769, Cong.
9. Queen's,	New Jersey,	1770, Ref.
10. Hampden-Sydney,	Virginia,	1776, Presby.
11. Washington and Lee,	Virginia,	1782, Non-sec.
12. Washington University,	Maryland,	1782, Non-sec.
13. Dickinson,	Pennsylvania,	1783, Meth-Episc.
14. St. John's,	Maryland,	1784, Non-sec.
15. Nashville,	Tennessee,	1785, Non-sec.
16. University of North Carolina,	North Carolina,	1789, Non-sec.
17. Georgetown,	Dis. of Columbia,	1799, R. Cath.
18. University of Vermont,	Vermont,	1791, Non-sec.
19. University of Tennessee,	Tennessee,	1792, Non-sec.
20. Williams,	Massachusetts,	1793, Cong.
21. Bowdoin,	Maine,	1794, Non-sec.
22. Union,	New York,	1795, Non-sec.
23. Middlebury,	Vermont,	1795, Cong.
24. Frederick College,	Maryland,	1796, Non-sec.

1. What were some of the more important early academies?
2. Do any of these continue to prosper?
3. Why have academies failed to prosper in the West?
4. What were the principal influences that led to the establishment of the above colleges?
5. Through what means were they established?
6. How were they supported?
7. The class of students; the kind of work offered; the nature of the discipline?
8. What is the present condition of the above colleges?

"After God had carried us safe to New England, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessities for our livelihood, reared convenient places for God's worship, and settled the Civill Government: One of the next things we longed for, and looked after, was to advance *Learning*, and perpetuate it to our Posterity, dreading to leave an illiterate Min-

istry to the Churches when our present Ministers shall lie in Dust. And as wee were thinking and consulting how to effect this great Work, it pleased God to stir up the heart of one Mr. *Harvard* (a godly Gentleman and a lover of Learning, there living amongst us) to give the one-half of his estate (it being in all about 1700 lbs.) toward the erecting of a College and all his Library. After him another gave 300 lbs.; others after them cast in more, and the publique hand of the state added the rest." From *New England's First Fruits: Old South Leaflets*, No. 51.

PERIOD OF REORGANIZATION AND EDUCATIONAL
FORMATION, 1790-1840.

SUGGESTION OF TOPICS.

Rapid growth in population; in industries; in education; in periodicals.

Change in ideals.

The influence of religion on education becoming a less prominent factor, while utility and education for its own sake increase in importance.

Growth of the idea that education is the birth-right of every individual.

Sources of school funds and how controlled.

Beginning of a permanent school fund; how obtained and how distributed.

Beginning of State supervision; of county and city supervision.

Nature and conditions of the schools.

Ideas of education as expressed by some of the leading men of the time.

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1. Why are the above names especially significant to students of the history of education?

2. What other persons of this period might well be added to the list?

3. What new educational ideas were presented by Webster?

Extracts Showing the Opinions of Washington and Others Concerning Education.

"Promote, as an object of primary importance, institutions for the general diffusion of knowledge. . . . In proportion as the structure of government gives force to public opinion, it is essential that public opinion be enlightened." George Washington, Farewell Address.

"I look to the diffusion of light and education as the resources most to be relied upon for ameliorating the condition, promoting the virtue, and advancing the happiness of man. . . . A system of general instruction, which shall reach every description of our citizens, from the richest to the poorest, as it was the earliest, so shall it be the latest, of all concerns in which I shall permit myself to take an interest." Thomas Jefferson.

"Learned institutions ought to be the favorite objects with every free people: they throw that light over the public mind which is the best security against crafty and dangerous encroachments on the public liberty. They multiply the educated individuals, from among whom the people may elect a due portion of their public agents of every description; more especially those who are to frame the laws by the perspicuity, the constancy, and the stability, as well as the justice and equal

spirit of which the great social purposes are to be answered." James Madison.

"Moral, intellectual and political improvements are duties assigned by the Author of our existence to social, no less than individual, man. For the fulfilment of these duties governments are invested with power, and to the attainment of these ends the exercise of this power is a duty sacred and indispensable," J. Q. Adams.

"The wisdom and generosity of the Legislature in making liberal appropriations in money for the benefit of schools, academies and colleges, is an equal honor to them and their constituents, a proof of their veneration for letters and science, and a portent of great and lasting good to North and South America, and to the world." John Q. Adams, Inaugural.

"The theory of our government is, not that all men, however unfit, shall be voters, but that every man, by the power of reason and the sense of duty, shall become fit to be a voter. Education must bring the practice as near as possible to the theory. As the children now are, so will the sovereigns soon be." Horace Mann.

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QUESTIONS ON SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

1. Discuss the origin and development of school supervision in America.
2. What are the different plans for effective supervision?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?
4. What States seem to have the best system of supervision?
5. What would be the best plan for supervision in Nebraska?
6. Would this plan be equally good for Massachusetts? Why?
7. What are the requisites of an efficient superintendent?

PROVISIONS FOR THE PREPARATION AND IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS.

1. The establishment of educational societies and the formation of teachers' clubs for mutual improvement.
2. Institutes and educational associations, County, State and National.
 - (a) Order of development.
 - (b) Nature and purpose of each.
 - (c) Influence upon education
3. Educational literature, including books on pedagogy, periodicals, educational reports, etc.
4. Normal schools; their origin, development, present conditions and influence upon education.
5. The advantages and disadvantages of Normal training.
6. Chairs of pedagogy. Conditions leading to their establishment. Advantages and disadvantages as compared with Normal schools.
7. Teachers' training colleges and schools of education. How different from Normal schools and chairs of pedagogy.
8. Summer schools, etc.

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GRADATION OF SCHOOLS.

1. What is included under the term gradation?
2. What were some of the earliest attempts at gradation in this country?
3. What are the principal advantages and disadvantages of gradation?
4. Can the same system of gradation be used in the district as in the city? Give reasons for answer.
5. What correlation of studies in elementary and secondary education would you advise?
6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of uniform curricula in elementary, secondary and higher education?
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CHANGES IN COLLEGE CURRICULA, UNIVERSITY EXTENSION, AND GROWTH IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

1. What are some of the changes that have taken place in college curricula in late years?
2. What effect have these changes had on the teaching in elementary schools?
3. What is the elective system? Why was it introduced?
4. What is meant by the group system of studies?
5. What is meant by the system of specialization?
6. Advantages and disadvantages of the different systems?
7. Where are educational reforms most likely to originate, *i. e.*, within or without the schools;
8. What are the chief difficulties with university extension work?

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QUESTIONS.

1. What is meant by the term "New Education?"
2. Are we justified in using the term "New Education?" If so, what are the reasons which justify its use?
3. Who are some of the educational leaders of to-day in America? Why leaders?
4. What are some of the leading educational problems at present under discussion?

VITA

THE author of this publication, son of George W. and Druzilla Arnold Luckey, was born near Decatur, Indiana, February 11, 1855.

He obtained his early education in the district schools, and graduated from the Decatur High School in 1873. For the next five years the winter months were spent in teaching and the rest of the time in farm labor and in study at the Northern Indiana Normal School, Valparaiso, Indiana.

In 1878, he was elected County Superintendent of schools of Adams County, Indiana. He served in this capacity for four years, refusing a unanimous re-appointment in order to accept the city superintendency of schools of Decatur, Indiana. After four years service as City Superintendent he declined re-election, to go to California.

From 1887 to 1892, he was superintendent of schools, Ontario, California. In 1892 he entered Leland Stanford University, graduating in 1894 with the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The summers of 1893 and 1894 he spent at the Hopkins' Seaside Laboratory, Pacific Grove, California, in the study of histology and embryology. In 1894-95 he was a fellow in psychology at Clark University, Worcester, Mass. In 1895 he became associate professor of pedagogy, University of Nebraska, organizing the department which had just been established. The following year he was promoted to the professorship of education, a position he still holds.

The year 1899-1900 was spent on a leave of absence at Teachers' College, Columbia University, where he was made a fellow in education. He received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy from Columbia University in 1900.

